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From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive.*

M,DCCC,XI.

With an APPENDIX.

> "*Nobis rectiùs videtur ingenii quam virium opibus gloriam quærere.*" SALLUST.

VOLUME LXVI.

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THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1811.

Art. I. *Travels through the South of France*, and in the Interior of the Provinces of Provence and Languedoc, in the Years 1807 and 1808, by a Route never before performed, being along the Banks of the Loire, the Isere, and the Garonne, through the greater Part of their Course. Made by Permission of the French Government, by Lieut.-Col. Pinkney, of the North American Native Rangers. 4to. pp. 282. 1l. 5s. Boards. Purdy and Son.

From investigating the political state of France by the aid of the labours of M. Faber, in our last two numbers, we are led in the present work to the more pleasing task of contemplating its physical aspect, and the manners of its inhabitants in private life. Books of travels in France, which were so frequent in 1802 and 1803, have of late become very rare; and Colonel Pinkney's narrative, though referring to the year 1807, will be found to be one of the latest descriptions of the interior of that kingdom. He travelled not with the eye of a connoisseur in painting or architecture, nor with the desire of admission into fashionable life, but with a wish to form an estimate of the degree of comfort which might be attendant on a family-residence in that country, and perhaps with an intention of adopting it at some period as his own. To those who may entertain a similar project, his journal will afford a variety of useful information; the mode and the expence of living in a middle rank of society being more frequently considered in this than in the generality of books of travels. The accuracy of his report may, with a qualification which we shall point out towards the end of our remarks, be usually trusted; and it will probably be regretted by those on the north side of the Channel, who meditate a residence in France at the return of peace, that he did not visit Upper and Lower Normandy: provinces which, from their contiguity to our coast, from the similarity of climate, and from the cheapness, particularly, of the latter, are likely to be among the first to engage the attention of our countrymen.

Colonel Pinkney, having long been desirous of visiting France, availed himself of an opportunity in the spring of 1807, and took his passage from Baltimore to Liverpool. After having passed some weeks in travelling through England, he returned to Liverpool, and proceeded in the same vessel to Calais; a circuitous passage which lasted three weeks. It is singular that, when so much pressed for time, and so much disliking a sea-voyage, Mr. Pinkney should not have taken a more direct passage to the French coast, our communication with which was not at that period greatly restricted. 'The French,' he says, 'are beyond all manner of doubt the most good humoured people on the surface of the earth. The English, perhaps, as nationally possessing the more solid virtues, may be the best friends and the most generous benefactors: but as the display of good humour is of frequent occurrence, while that of friendship, in this more exalted acceptation of it, is rare, it is a serious question with me which is the most (more) useful Being in society.' The patience with which the porters, contending for the baggage, allowed themselves to be beaten out of the way by the master of the ship, afforded him a contrast to the resolute independence of our countrymen. Having taken up his quarters at Dessein's celebrated hôtel, the author had the satisfaction of finding that it preserved its reputation as well as its name; and he declares it to be the only inn which he found in all France that could enter into any reasonable comparison with the respectable inns of this country. Speaking from useful experience, he advises every traveller to remember nerally a walnut or chesnut-tree before them, with a rustic seat, and the sod sufficiently worn to shew that these were the spots appropriated to the favourite amusement of dancing. He entered no house so poor, and met with no inhabitant so inhospitable, as not to allow of his being offered either milk or some sort of wine. On reaching Boulogne, he was gratified with the cleanness of the town, and delighted with the prospect from the ramparts, particularly at high water. The view of the harbour satisfied him that it would be on our part an act of madness to attempt any thing against such formidable fortifications; while the miserable appearance of the flotilla convinced him that it would be equally infatuated on the part of the French to meditate the project of crossing the Channel. At Montreuil, Colonel Pinkney witnessed the march of a number of conscripts, whom he represents as extremely young, but not, as we might suppose from M. Faber's late statements, as betraying any aversion to their situation. He says that their merriment and noise were characteristic of the French youth.— Pursuing his route towards Paris, he passed successively through the towns of Abbeville and Amiens; of the present condition of which he thus speaks:

'*Abbeville* is a populous but a most unpleasant town.' — 'The inhabitants are stated to exceed 22,000. The town has a most ruinous appearance, from the circumstance of many of the houses being built with wood; and by the forms of the windows and the doors, some of them must be very ancient. There are two or three manufactories of cloth, but none of them were in a flourishing condition.'—'I saw likewise a manufactory of carpets, which seemed more flourishing. In the cloth manufactory, the earnings of the working manufacturers are about 36 sous per diem (1s. 6d.): in the carpet manufactories, somewhat more. The cloths, as far as I am a judge, seemed to me even to exceed those of England; but the carpets are much inferior. From some unaccountable reason, however, the cloths were much dearer than English broad cloth of the same quality. Whence does this happen, in a country where provisions are so much cheaper? Perhaps from the neglect of the sub-division of labour. Abbeville, like all the other principal towns through which I passed, bore melancholy marks of the Revolution. The handsome church which stood in the market-place is in ruins—scarcely a stone remains on the top of another. Many of the best houses were shut up, and others of the same description, evidently inhabited by people for whom they were not built. In many of them, one room only was inhabited; and in others, the second and third floors turned into granaries.'—

'I reached *Amiens* about eight o'clock, on the sweetest summer evening imaginable. The aspect of Amiens, as it is approached by the road, resembles Canterbury — the cathedral rising above the

town—

country and not the capital of France, a travelling party was soon formed, consisting of Mr. and Mrs. Younge, Mrs. Younge's niece, (or sister, for she is called both,) and himself, for the purpose of visiting the banks of the Loire, and proceeding through the Bourbonnois to Lyons and the southward. Col. Pinkney's companions appear to have been of the most agreeable description; although, when he styles the ladies 'the most handsome and amiable in France,' we have not, we confess, good nature enough to put complete faith in his words. We are disposed either to ascribe these comprehensive epithets to the sanguine and exaggerated tone which is apparent throughout the book, or to regard them as a salvo for the freedom with which the traveller relates, in the course of the journey, anecdotes of his fair companions which are scarcely compatible with the delicacy of friendship. The party set out in a coach, which they afterward exchanged for a kind of open barouche that was particularly adapted for the French cross roads; being very narrow, and composed entirely of cane, with removeable wheels, so as to take to pieces in an instant. Aware that a French innkeeper has no idea of providing a clean table-cloth, and that his guests are generally expected to be the bearers of their bed-linen, Mrs. Younge was careful to make a provision of these important articles, as well as of the not less useful appendages of knives and spoons. Another necessary precaution, on the part of English or American travellers, is to see that the meat or poultry is not over-boiled, over-hashed, or over-roasted. With the benefit of this preliminary information, and the advantage of a very favourable season, Mr. Pinkney and his friends performed a delightful journey through the finest part of France. The banks of the Loire and the adjacent country have long been famed for romantic beauty; and the writer's style discovers, on reaching that quarter, an animation which is not to be found in the earlier part of his work. It was on the road from Chartres to Angers, that he experienced the first effects of a gratification which continued with him during the chief part of his remaining journey:

> 'Throughout the greater part of this road, as well as of that from Angers to Nantes, nothing could be more delightful than the scenery on both sides, and nothing better than the roads. From La Fleche to Angers, and thence to Ancennis, the country is a complete garden. The hills were covered with vines; every wood had its chateau, and every village its church. The peasantry were clean and happy, the children chearful and healthy-looking, and the greater part of the younger women spirited and handsome. There was a great plenty of fruit; and as we passed through the villages, it was invariably brought to us, and almost as invariably any pecuniary return refused with a retreating curtsey.'—

light, elastic, and cheering. The windows of the bed-chambers, as I have before mentioned, are almost all without glass; or, if they have them, it is for show rather than for use: the universal custom is, to sleep with them open. It is nothing uncommon to have the swallows flying into your chamber, and awakening you by early dawn with their twittering.'—' Pease are in common use on every table in March, and every kind of culinary vegetable is equally forward.' —' The health of the inhabitants corresponds with the excellence of the climate. Gouts, rheumatisms, and even colds, are very rare, and fevers not frequent. The most common complaint is a dysentery, towards the latter end of the autumn.'

The towns, which the author visited in travelling through this favoured region, sometimes formed, by their bad building, an unpleasant contrast to the beauty of the surrounding country. The subsequent extracts will serve to shew the route which he took, and to communicate the most interesting part of his observations on the cities in this quarter:

Chartres.—' The inland towns of England, be their antiquity what it may, retain but little of their ancient form; from the necessary effects of a brisk trade, the several houses have so often changed owners, and the owners have usually been so substantial in their circumstances, that there is scarcely a house, perhaps, but what in twenty years has been rebuilt from its fundamental stone. It is not the same with the houses in the old towns of France. A French tradesman's house is like his stocking—he never thinks he wants a new one, as long as he can in any way darn his old one; he never thinks of building a new wall, as long as he can patch his old one; he repairs his house piecemeal as it falls down: the repairs, therefore, are always made so as to match the breach. In this manner the original form of the house is preserved for some centuries, and, as philosophers say of the human body, retains its identity, though every atom of it may have been changed. It is thus with Chartres, one of the most ancient towns in France, which in every house bears evident proofs of its antiquity, the streets being in straight lines, and the houses dark, large, but full of small rooms.'—

' *Nantes* is one of the most ancient cities in France; it is the *Condivunum* of the Romans, and the *Civitas Namnetum* of Cæsar. It is mentioned by several Latin writers as a town of most considerable population under the Roman prefects; and there is every appearance in several parts of the city, that it has declined much from its original importance. It is still, however, in every respect, a noble city, and, unlike most commercial cities, is as beautifully as it is advantageously situated. It is built on the ascent and summit of an hill, at the foot of which is the Loire, almost as broad, and ten times more beautiful, than the Thames. In the middle of the stream, opposite the town, are several islets, on which are houses and gardens, and which, as seen by the setting sun, about which time there are dancing parties, and marquees ornamented with ribbons, have a most pleasing effect.'—

'*Angers* is situated in a plain, which, in the distance being fringed with wood, and being very fertile in corn and meadow, wants nothing of the richness and beauty which seem to characterize this part of the province.'—'The general appearance of Angers does not correspond with the magnificence of its walls, its castle, and its cathedral. Its size is respectable; there are six parish churches, besides monasteries and chapters, and the inhabitants are estimated at 50,000. The streets, however, are very narrow, and the houses mean, low, and huddled: there is the less excuse for this, as ground is plentiful and cheap; there is scarcely a good house inhabited within the walls. The towns in France differ in this respect very considerably from those in England: in a principal town in England you will invariably find a considerable number of good houses, where retired merchants and tradesmen live in the ease and elegance of private gentlemen. There is nothing of this kind in the French towns. Every house is a shop, a warehouse, a magazine, or a lodging house.'—'The French tradesman can seldom do more than obtain a scanty subsistence by his business. In all the best French towns, the tradesmen have more the air of chandlers than of great dealers. There are absolutely no interior towns in France like Norwich, Manchester, and Birmingham. In some of their principal manufacturing places, there may indeed be one or two principal men and respectable houses; but neither these men nor their houses are of such number and quality, as to give any dignity or beauty to their towns beyond mere places of trade. The French accordingly, judging from what they see at home, have a very contemptible idea of the term merchant; and if a foreign traveller of this class should wish to be admitted into good company, let him pass by any other name than that of marchand or negociant. To say all in a word, this pervious to a direct current of air. The houses are built of a white stone, so as to give this part of the town a perfect resemblance to Bath. Some of them, moreover, are spacious and elegant, and all of them neat, and with every external appearance of comfort. The tradesmen have every appearance of being in more substantial circumstances than is usual with the French provincial dealers; their houses, therefore, are neat and in good repair, the windows are not patched with paper, the wood-work is fresh painted, and the pavement kept clean.'—'The society of Tours is infinitely beyond that of any other provincial town in France. I have already mentioned, that there are some excellent houses within the city, and they are in great numbers in the immediate vicinity. Tours, in this respect, resembles Canterbury or Salisbury in England. It is the favourite retreat of such advocates as have made fortunes in their profession. The noblesse of the province have their balls and assemblies almost weekly during the summer months; and even in the winters, Tours is by many preferred to Paris.' — 'When I had occasion to stop in any town, which I thought had a *primâ facie* appearance of being a place of pleasant residence or settlement for a foreigner, the main object of my enquiries went to ascertain all those points which were necessary to determine this question. Of all the cities which I had yet seen, Tours appeared to me the best adapted for such a residence.' — 'A carriage may be kept cheaply; in a word, I would venture positively so say, that for 250l. English money annually, a family might live at Tours in plenty and elegance; but let them not have English or American servants.'—

Blois. — 'The situation of Blois is as agreeable as that of all the other principal towns on the Loire. The main part of it is built upon an hill which descends by a gentle declivity to the Loire; the remaining part of it is a suburb on the opposite side of the river, to which it is joined by a bridge resembling that at Kew, in England. From the hill on which the town stands is a beautiful view of a rich and lovely country, and there is certainly not a town in France or in Europe, with the exception of Tours and Toulouse, which can command such a delightful landscape. It appeared, perhaps, more agreeable to us as we saw it after it had been freshened by the morning rain. The structure of the town does not correspond with the beauty of its scite. The streets are narrow and the houses low. There are some of the houses, however, which are very respectable, and evidently the habitation of a superior class of inhabitants. They reminded me much of what are common in the county-towns of England.'—

'*Orleans* has a very near resemblance to Tours, though the latter town is certainly better built, and preferable in situation: Orleans, however, is situated very beautifully. The country is uneven and diversified, and the fields have the air of pleasure grounds, except in the luxuriant wildness of the hedges, and the frequent intermixture of orchard and fruit trees. As seen from the road, the aspect of Orleans is extremely picturesque; it reminded me strongly of some towns I had seen in the interior of England. The interior of the town does not altogether correspond with the beauty of the country own country, to introduce the habits of an improved district into one that is more backward. A Northumberland farmer, settling in Herefordshire or Salop, will in vain address the natives on the superiority of his method; the answer in these counties, and, we are sorry to add, throughout most counties in the south or west of England, would be, that "his innovations do not suit their quarter, which can be cultivated only in one way, the way followed by them and their fathers before them." It has often happened, accordingly, that farmers from the north, finding the prejudices of the local workmen insurmountable, have been obliged to send for labourers from their own quarter. If, then, under the favourable circumstances of identity of language and national feeling, the difficulties in the way of improvement are so serious, how much more arduous are they likely to prove in a foreign country? Mr. Pinkney appears, accordingly, to speak correctly in saying that a British farmer, settling in France, must in the first instance send to England for all his implements; after which, his French labourers neither can nor will learn the use of them. He must therefore expect the execution of his views only as far as they can be accomplished by the labour of himself and his countrymen; and it would be easier to teach a Hottentot to write, than a French peasant to acquire this new practice. Moreover, the habits of the consumers in France have become so accommodated to the established course of husbandry, that the improver would, on that account also, be exposed to considerable difficulty. In the culture of turnips, for example, he cannot persevere where he cannot find cattle to eat them; or where he would also be at a loss to find purchasers for the cattle which he may keep; or where, from the openness of the winter, the crop is in danger of rotting before it can be consumed. Similar impediments oppose his clover-cultivation; so that, if the French government were disposed to encourage the settlement of foreigners, it would become a serious consideration for the latter, how far it is adviseable for them to seek a French naturalization.

The expence of provisions was a favourite subject of inquiry with Col. Pinkney. We have already noticed the state of markets at Calais, and, it seems, he found them cheaper as he advanced on his journey:

'Amiens is still a very cheap town for permanent residence, though the war has very seriously affected it. A good house may be rented for thirty pounds per annum, the taxes upon the mere house being about a louis. Mutton seldom exceeds three-pence, English money, per pound, and beef is usually somewhat cheaper. Poultry of all kinds is in great plenty, and cheap: fowls, ducks, &c. about two shillings per couple. A horse at livery, half a louis per week; two horses,

orses, all expences included, a louis and two livres. Board and lodg-
ng in a genteel house, five-and-twenty louis annually. Dr. M.
greed with me, that for three hundred a year, a family might keep
heir carriage and live in comfort, at Amiens and its neighbourhood.
must not forget another observation, the towns in France are
heaper than the villages. The consumption of meat in the latter is
ot sufficient to induce the butchers to kill often; the market, there-
ore, is very ill supplied, and consequently the prices are dear. A few
iles from a principal town, you cannot have a leg of mutton without
aying for the whole sheep. A stranger may live at an inn at Amiens
or about five shillings, English money, a day. The wine is good,
nd very cheap; and a daily ordinary, or *table d'hôte*, is kept at the
Iotel d'Angleterre. Breakfast is charged one livre, dinner three, and
upper one: half a livre for coffee, and two livres for lodging; but
you remain a week, ten livres for the whole time.'—

'At Angers, beef and mutton are about 2d. per pound; a fowl 5d.;
nd turkies, when in season, from 18d. to 2s.; bread is about 1½d. a
ound; and vegetables, greens, &c. cheap to a degree. A good
ouse in Angers about six Louis per year, and a mansion fit for a
rince, (for there are some of them, but without inhabitants,) from
rty to fifty Louis, including from thirty to forty acres of land without
e walls. I have no doubt but that any one might live at Angers
n 250 Louis per annum, as well as in England for four times the
mount.'—

'At Saumur, beef, not very good, that is, not very fat, about 1½d.
English) per pound; mutton and veal about 2d.; — two fowls 8d.;
wo ducks 10d.; geese and turkies from 1s. 6d. to 2s. 6d.;—fuel,
s much as would serve three fires for the year, about 5l.; a house of
wo stories and garrets, two rooms in front and two in back in each
tory, such being the manner in which they are built, a passage run-
ing through the middle, and the rooms being on each side—such
house, resembling an English parsonage, about five Louis a year;
r with a garden, paddock, and orchard, about eight Louis;—but-
r 8d. per pound; cheese 4d.; and milk a halfpenny a quart. Ac-
ording to the best estimate I could make, a family, consisting
f a man, his wife, and three or four children, two maid-servants, a
an-servant, and three horses, might be easily kept at Saumur, and in
s neighbourhood, for about 100l. a year. I am fully persuaded
at I am rather over than under the mark. The country immediately
bout Saumur is as lively and beautiful as the town itself.'—

'At Tours there is an excellent market for provisions; I had not
e opportunity of seeing it on the market day, but was informed,
answer to my enquiries, that every article was plentiful, and very
eap. Wood, which is so dear in every other part of France, is
re very cheap, the country being overspread with forests, and
e river furnishing a ready transportation. Houses are good and
eap: the rent of a house, consisting of a ground floor, two
ories above, and attics, the windows in front of each floor being
om six to eight, with coach-house, stables, garden and orchards,
about 20l. English money, the taxes from 1l. 10s. to 2l., and
rish rates about 10s. annually. I should not forget to mention
that

that the gardens are large, sometimes two or three acres, encompassed with high walls and well planted with fruit-trees, and particularly wall-fruit.'—

Travelling.—' Posting is nearly as dear in France as in England. A post in France is six miles, and one shilling and threepence is charged for each horse, and sevenpence for the driver. The price, therefore, for two horses would be three shillings and a penny; but whatever number of persons there may be, a horse is charged for each. The postillions, moreover, expect at least double of what the book of regulations allows them as matter of right.'—

' In substantial provision and accommodation, the French inns are not a whit inferior to English of the same degree: but they are inferior to them in all the minor appendages. In point of eating and drinking the French inns infinitely exceed the English: their provisions are of a better kind, and are much cheaper: we scarcely slept any where, where we could not procure fowls of all kinds, eggs and wine. It is too true, indeed, that their mode of cooking is not very well suited to an English palate; but a very little trouble will remedy this inconvenience. The French cooks are infinitely obliging in this respect—they will take your instructions, and thank you for the honour done them. The dinner, moreover, when served up, will consist of an infinite variety, and that without materially swelling the bill. Add to this the desert, of which an English innkeeper, except in the most expensive hotels, has not a single idea. In France, on the other hand, in the poorest inns, in the most ordinary hedge ale-house, you will have a desert of every fruit in season, and always tastily and even elegantly served. The wine, likewise, is better than what is met with on the roads in England. In the article of beds, with a very few exceptions, the French inns exceed the English: if a traveller carry his sheets with him, he is always secure of an excellent hair mattrass, or if he prefer it, a clean feather-bed. On the other side, the French inns are certainly inferior to the English in their apartments. The bed-room is too often the dining-room. The walls are merely whitewashed, or covered with some execrable pictures. There are no such things as curtains, or at least they are never considered as necessary. There is neither soap, water, nor towel, to cleanse yourself when you rise in the morning. A Frenchman has no idea of washing himself before he breakfasts. The furniture, also, is always in the worst possible condition. We were often puzzled to contrive a tolerable table: the one in most common use is composed of planks laid across two stools or benches. The chairs are usually of oak, with perpendicular backs. There are no bells, and the attendants are more frequently male than female, though this practice is gradually going out of vogue. There is a great change, moreover, of late years, in the civility of the landlords; they will now acknowledge their obligations to you, and not, as formerly, treat you as intruders. To sum up the comparison between a French and English provincial inn, the expences for the same kind of treatment, allowing only for the national differences, are about one-fourth of what they would be in England. In the course of our tour, we were repeatedly detained for days together

gether at some of the inns on the road, and our whole suite, amounting to seven in number, never cost us more than at the rate of an English guinea a day. In England, I am confident it would have been four times the sum.'

The condition of the peasantry, in the different provinces through which he passed, appears to have engaged a considerable share of Mr. Pinkney's attention. The performance of the hardest field-labour by the women, their exposure to the weather, and their premature loss of youthful looks, all of which he describes, might have been deemed consequences of the revolutionary wars, and of the drain of young men by forced levies, had not the same facts been open to observation under the antient monarchy. 'The peasant-women in France work,' he says, 'so hard as to lose every appearance of youth in the face, while they retain it in the person; and it is therefore no uncommon thing to see the person of a Venus and the face of an old monkey.' In Picardy, he found the rate of wages, in the harvest season, for the hay-field, 1s. 6d. sterling a day; and for mowing, 2s. 1d., with two bottles of cyder: women had 7d. a day and their victuals. In the Touraine, provisions being cheaper, the wages of the countryman are somewhat lower, and may be called a shilling all the year through, with an allowance of three pints of the wine of the country. The greater part of the peasantry have a cow, and a small slip of land. In regard to sustenance, chesnuts, grapes, and onions, are to the poor in France what potatoes are in Ireland: the breakfast consisting generally of bread and capital as in England. While at Paris workmanship is carried on with the greatest nicety, the blacksmiths, the carpenters, and other artisans throughout the country are wretched. 'The things in common use,' says the author, 'are execrable: not a window that shuts close, not a door that fits; every thing clumsy, rough hewn, and as if made by Robinson Crusoe and his man Friday.' Much less bustle of travelling also prevails in France than in England. From Boulogne to Abbeville, a single cart and a waggon were the only vehicles seen by Col. Pinkney; and on leaving Paris, he had scarcely reached the first stage, (about seven miles,) when every appendage of a great city disappeared, and the scenery and objects were as retired as in one of our remotest counties. These were the remarks of English travellers in former days; and the Revolution, though it has greatly increased the population of the French capital, does not seem to have much augmented its intercourse with the country. Hence the manners, habits, and dress of Paris, arein a great measure confined to that metropolis, and every province still remains marked by its antient characteristics. Their country-houses are, accordingly, in a very different style from ours.

'In the ordinary construction of a French chateau, there is a greater consumption of wood than brick, and no sparing of ground. It is usually a rambling building, with a body, wings, and again wings upon those wings; and flanked on each side with a pigeon-house, stables, and barns, the pigeon-house being on the right, and the barns and stables on the left. The decorations are infinitely beneath contempt; painted weather cocks and copper turrets, and even the paint apparently as ancient as the chateau. The windows are numerous, but even in the best chateaus there is strange neglect as to the broken glass; sometimes they are left as broken, but more frequently patched with paper, coloured silk, or even stuffed with linen. The upper tier of windows, even in the front of the house, is usually ornamented with the clothes of the family hanging out to dry, a piece of slovenliness and ill taste for which there can assuredly be no excuse in the country, where there is surely room enough for this part of household business. Upon the whole, the appearance of a French chateau, in the old style, resembles one of those deserted houses which are sometimes seen in England, where the plaister has been peeled or is peeling off, and where every boy that passes throws his stone at the windows. The pleasure-grounds attached to the chateau, very exactly correspond with its style: the chateau is usually built in the worst possible scite of the whole estate. It generally stands in some meadow or lawn, and precisely in that part of it which is the natural drain of the whole, and where, if there was no house, there would necessarily be an horse pond. A grand avenue, planted on each side with noble trees, leads up to the house, but is usually so overgrown with moss and

low in the garden, it is formed into a m
dozen nymphs in stone are about to plung

'Almost every chateau has a certain
a certain quantity of woodland, and thes
necessary appendages, that an house is sca
without them. The table of a French g
supplied from his land. Having a plenty o
he gives very little trouble to his butche
villages meat is not to be had, and even
bears a very small proportion to what wo
ral demand of the population.'—

'One distinction of French and English
In England, if any one comes from any di
of a friend, he of course takes his dinner, an
is then expected to return home. Unless
and not even always then, he must not ex
remain day after day for a week or a fortni
as an outrage. On the other hand, in Fran
comes to its chateau for the summer (for
has become the fashion), than preparation
parties of visitors. Every day brings some
to go, as long as he can be detained. Every
pleasant assemblage, and in riding, walkin
can pass more agreeably than a French sumn
we passed along, we met several of these
rides; they invariably addressed us, and ve
to their houses, though perfectly strangers
living in these country-residences differs very
mon in the same rank of life in England. T
tea, coffee, fruits, and cold meat. The di
o'clock, and is served up as in England.
have not as yet imitated the English habit of
in a saloon or pavillion, fronting the garden
follows the dinner: this consumes about tw
then divide into parties, and walk.

an English one stare; but France is the land of love, and it is an universal maxim that life is insipid without it.'—

The returned emigrants who had lived in England have been instrumental in introducing a better taste with regard to the disposition of country-residences; and a traveller may sometimes, though still rarely, discover a lawn neatly mown, with painted seats, and a neat palisaded gate opening to the road. It were to be wished that the same class directed their attention to the dissemination of habits of delicacy among their fellow-subjects, who are still as far behind as ever in that respect. The pantomime at Amiens was so deficient in this point, as to make it necessary for Mr. Pinkney to withdraw; and we are assailed throughout his journey with complaints of the coarse manners at inns, especially of the disposition to gallantry among the hostesses and chambermaids. The presence of men-servants in bed-rooms, and the invincible loquacity of the females, who hold conversation with a gentleman with as much ease as if he were of their own station in life, seem to have been productive of no inconsiderable annoyance to him. The *equivoques*, which are common in genteel company, excited in him similar sensations; and, notwithstanding the superior vivacity and fancy of the French ladies, he is inclined to give a marked preference to our country-women. Every thing in Paris is done, as he justly remarks, for exhibition. The French dance, converse, and sing in company as if they were on the stage. Their conversation has consequently more wit than interest, and their dancing more vanity than mirth. The French ladies care not what they exhibit so that they exhibit their skill; they are figurantes even in their chit-chat; and in the grand point of good looks, Mr. Pinkney concurs in the general opinion of their inferiority to the fair sex in England.

The latter part of Col. P.'s journey was in the direction of Marseilles, by Lyons, and the banks of the Rhône; and here, as in the earlier portion of his tour, the country wore the appearance of healthfulness and fertility, but was much inferior in beauty to the banks of the Loire. The most useful information in this division of the work is the account of the principal towns on the road.

'*Moulins* somewhat disappointed my expectation. It is indeed beautifully situated, in the midst of a rising and variegated country, but the interior of the town does not merit description: the streets are narrow, the houses dark, and built in the worst possible style.'—'The market-place is only worthy of mention as introducing the price of provisions. Moulins is as cheap as Tours: beef, and mutton, and veal, are plentiful; vegetables scarcely cost any thing, and fuel is very moderate. Fruit is so cheap as scarcely to be sold, and very

ry good; eggs two dozen for an English sixpence; poultry abun-
ant, and about sixpence a fowl. A good house, such a one as is
ually inhabited by the lawyer, the apothecary, or a gentleman of
ve or six hundred per annum, in the country-towns in England, is
Moulins from twelve to fourteen pounds per year, including gar-
en and paddock.'—' Our inn at Moulins, however, was horrible:
ur beds would have frightened any one but an experienced travel-
r.'—

'*Avignon* is in a plain, equally fertile and beautiful, about fifteen
iles in breadth and ten in length. On the south and east it is circled
y a chain of mountains. The plain is divided into cultivated fields,
which are grown wheat, barley, saffron, silk, and madder.'—
From the high ground in the city, nothing can be finer than the
rospect over the plain and surrounding country. The Rhone is
ere seen rolling its animated stream through meadows covered with
live trees, and at the foot of hills invested with vineyards.'—

' Avignon is surrounded by walls built by successive Popes; they
ill remain in perfect beauty and preservation, and much augment,
articularly in a distant view, the beauty of the town. They are
omposed of free-stone, are flanked at regular distances with square
wers, and surmounted with battlements. The public walks are
und the foot of this wall.'—' The interior of the city is ill built:
e streets are narrow and irregular, and the pavement is most trouble-
mely rough. There is not a lamp, except at the houses of the
tter kind of people; the funds of the town are still good, but they
e all expended on the roads, public walks, and dinners. The
cessity of a constant attention to paving and lighting, never enters
to the heads of a French town-administration; they seem to think
at the whole business is done when the town is once paved.'—

' The Avignonese, whilst under the papal jurisdiction, bore a
neral reputation for the utmost profligacy both of principles and
nduct. This character has now passed away, and, with the ex-
ption of what is termed gallantry, the Avignonese seem a gay and
rmless people.'—

' *Aix*, the capital of Provence, is very pleasantly situated in a
lley, surrounded by hills, which give it an air of recluseness, and
mantic retirement, without being so close as to prevent the due cir-
lation of air.'—' The interior of the town very well corresponds
th the importance of its first aspect. It is well paved, the houses
e all fronted with white stone, and the air being clear, it always
oks clean and sprightly. Many of them, moreover, have balconies,
d some of them are upon a scale, both outside and inside, which is
t excelled by Bath in England. Aix is almost the only town next
Tours, in which an English gentleman could fix a comfortable
idence. The society is good, and to a stranger of genteel appear-
ce, perfectly accessible either with or without introduction.'—' The
omenade, or public walk, equals, if not excells, any thing of the
nd in Europe—it consists of three alleys, shaded by four rows of
st noble elms, in the middle of a wide street, the houses on each
e being on the most magnificent scale, and inhabited by the first
ople of the city and province.'—' Provisions of all kinds are in
the

the greatest possible plenty: fish is to be had in great abundance, and the best quality; meat is likewise very reasonable, and tolerably good; bread is about a penny English by the pound; and vegetables as in other provincial towns, so cheap as scarcely to be worth selling.'—'The baths of Aix are very celebrated, and the town is much visited by valetudinarians: they are chiefly recommended in scorbutic humours, colds, rheumatisms, palsies, and consumptions. The waters are warm, and have in fact no taste but that of warm water.'—'Upon the whole, Aix is most delightfully situated, and the environs are beyond conception rural and beautiful. They are a succession of vineyards relieved by groves, meadows and fields.'

Letters having arrived from the author's family, intimating that his presence was required at home, he was under the necessity of taking his passage from Marseilles; Mr. Younge continuing his attention to the last, and refusing to quit his friend till he embarked.

Having thus accompanied the traveller throughout his tour, and endeavoured to communicate to our readers some of the satisfaction which we have ourselves derived from him, it becomes our duty to speak of the more ungracious parts in the execution of his performance. His most serious error, that which is most likely to mislead the reader who means to form a deliberate conclusion from his report, is the exaggerating tone of his descriptions. The superlative appears to be Col. Pinkney's favourite degree of comparison; and such phrases as 'infinitely better', or 'infinitely worse,' very frequently occur in his narrative. When his fancy was once kindled in favour of France by a sight of the banks of the Loire, almost every town, to Aix inclusive, is pronounced to possess charms for a permanent residence; and it is remarkable that the last quarter in which he is, whether Touraine, the Bourbonnois, or the Lyonnois, generally appears to make the strongest impression on him.—Our next animadversion relates to a point of less consequence in a public than in a private sense. After the obligation which the author acknowleges to Mr. and Mrs. Younge, and the high compliments which he pays to the latter and her unmarried sister, we scarcely expected to meet with exemplifications of French indelicacy at their expence; and to apprize the public (p. 153.) that the sister was captivated with him, so far as to betray confusion when charged with the predilection, discovers a share both of vanity and unkindness.—Our third criticism regards the loose manner in which Mr. Pinkney has put together his materials. Without the form of a journal, his work has, in a great degree, the repetition and want of classification which belong to that species of writing; instead of collecting and digesting all that occurred to him on particular heads, such as the fineness of the climate,

e backwardness of agriculture, and the cheerfulness and oblig-
g disposition of the inhabitants, he is too apt to bring for-
ards the same ideas piece-meal, and by repetitions. Allied to
is deficiency of arrangement is vagueness of style, and some-
mes even a kind of contradiction as to facts. 'The climate of
vignon (he says, p. 263.) is at once healthy and salubri-
us,' a pleonasm which may serve as a specimen of diffuse
iction; while, in support of our second remark, we shall
erely invite our readers to compare the favourable tone to-
ards France in the middle and latter part of the book, with
e very different impressions which are discovered in the be-
nning. This effect was produced, no doubt, by the im-
oved aspect of the provinces which he latterly visited: but
notice is given either of the cause of change, or of the
nitation with which his expressions, often too general,
ould be received.—In regard to borrowing, in a book of
avels, from preceding writers, we are not disposed to find
ult with such freedoms in the historical sketches of the re-
arkable places through which the tourist passes: but we de-
dedly object to them in respect to matters of ocular observ-
ion. The contrast of French and English dresses in the streets
Boulogne, and the communication that the English people
sident there were not of the most respectable description,
ough given here as new, are the remarks of travellers
tecedent to Mr. Pinkney. — Our last and most severe
prehension is applicable to the title-page, which is so
umsy and even so false an index to the book, that we
nnot for a moment ascribe it to the pen of Colonel Pink-
y himself. It seeks to entrap attention by asserting that the
urney was 'made by permission of the French government,'
ough the writer never speaks of any political difficulty, nor
any 'permission' except that of a common passport: it pre-
mes to call an excursion by the great cities of Tours, Orleans,
ons, and Avignon, a journey by 'a route never before perform-
;' it says that the time of travelling was in 1807 and 1808,
ereas the tour occupied only the summer of 1807: it brings
wards the south of France as the prominent part of the
rney, instead of ths banks of the Loire; and it mentions
nguedoc, and the banks of the Garonne, as quarters visited,
ough Mr. Pinkney only skirted the former, and never saw
latter. The volume being printed in London, and the author
iding in America, the probability is that the title was the sug-
tion of some book-maker belonging to the fraternity in
British metropolis. *Travels in France, in the summer of
07, with a description of the banks of the Loire,* would be, what
itle always should be, a plain index to the contents of the
work:

work. We take leave, therefore, of Mr. Pinkney with feelings of a mixed kind; in which, however, those of a favourable character are predominant, though they owe their ascendancy not to the learning and taste of the writer, but to that utility which he kept steadily in view throughout his inquiries and remarks. The principal subject of regret with his readers should be, that his time of observation was limited to a few months.

Art. II. *Hebrew Criticism and Poetry;* or the Patriarchal Blessings of Isaac and of Jacob, metrically analysed and translated; with Appendixes of Readings and Interpretations of the Four Greater Prophets, interspersed with metrical Translation and Composition; and with a Catena of the Prophecies of Balaam and Habákuk; of the Songs of Debórah and Hannah, and of the Lamentations of David over Saul, Jonathan, and Abner, metrically translated; also with the Table of First Lessons for Sundays, paged with References. By George Somers Clarke, D.D. Vicar of Great Waltham, Essex. 8vo. pp. 440. 15s. Boards. White & Co. 1810.

Reviewers ought perhaps to be ashamed of confessing that they are ever embarrassed: but such are the excentricities which occasionally develope themselves, especially in the theological department, that, to use an old word, we are so *astounded* by them as to feel a difficulty in making our report. We offer this remark not with respect to Dr. Clarke's Hebrew criticisms and arrangement of Hebrew poetry, but in reference to his very *unique* preface; which the orthodox and the heterodox, the churchman and the dissenter, the Christian and the infidel, will regard with equal amazement. Gibbon observes that "all the idolatrous systems of the heathen world were considered by the common people as equally true, by the philosopher as equally false, and by the politician as equally useful;" and though Dr. C. does not seem to go this length with regard to the established religion of his country, he teaches us to estimate its principal value as a *mere* '*political scheme*,' (p. xv.) and pleads for its support, not so much because it is *doctrinally right*, as because it is '*uppermost*.' (see also preface, p. xv.) His conformity appears to be completely philosophic. 'There certainly ought to be no quarrels,' says he, 'on account of religion. If subscription is the law of the land, every one *ought* to subscribe.' (p. xv. note.) He farther intimates that every private sentiment or interpretation ought 'to be cancelled before the *superior* learning of the law.' If, however, the *law* is to be the *supreme dictator* of faith, if 'right be in favour of power,' (p. xx.) and if systems, because they are '*uppermost*' by the patronage of civil rulers, are, for that

le reason, to obtain universal acquiescence, how absurd is it to
ldress an 'Invocation to the light of Learning,' as Dr. C.
oes at the beginning of this work, and to raise doubts and per-
lexities by critical disquisitions? Our capacities are too dense
comprehend how, by these singular admissions, the church of
ngland will be *exalted*, and the Romish and sectarian churches
nnihilated. (preface p. ix.) The Romanist will say, if absolute
ubmission to authority be the true line of conduct, "You,
)r. C., owe your first duty to the mother-church, and not to
he rebellious daughter;" — while sectaries, the very naughty
hildren of this rebellious daughter, will add that they have only
ollowed their precious mother's example. Thus Catholics and
rotestant dissenters will have the laugh against Dr. C.; and
he Established Church will disclaim such an advocate, who,
hough he demands for her all the homage which is due to
acred truth, imprudently admits that she is a mass or hetero-
eneous compound of errors. (see p. xiv.) Indeed, this clergy-
nan would have us to believe that, 'if the whole of the New
Testament, *with the exception only of the sermon on the Mount, and*
f the plainest parts of the narrative of the life of Christ, upon
which the Evangelists are generally agreed, should at any time
e proved to be the fabrication of well-designing persons in
ery early ages, tinctured with nearly the sole knowledge of the
)ld Testament, not in its original, but through the medium
f the Chaldæo-Coptico-Alexandrine-Greek;—still is the
hristian religion, still is the Church of England safe.'
. x. and xi.) This, however, is a kind of *safety* in which the
lergy in general will not much exult; and when Dr. C. adds,
But where is the church of Rome?' and vauntingly replies,—
in the opinion of all dispassionate persons, *condemned to annihi-*
tion in the miserable corruption of apparent ignorance and
etected artifice,'—can he want to be told, that the falsifi-
ation of the greatest part of the New Testament must alike
fect the doctrines of both churches? Surely he cannot seriously
ean to assert that, as matters now stand, the Protestant any
ore than the Catholic clergy can 'avoid every thing that is in-
omprehensible.' (p. xi. note.)

A curious argument in favour of the Established Church
set up at p. xx.—viz., that '*all* persons out of the pale
f the established religion *very greatly* misinterpret the Bible:'
ut if 'every thing is to be avoided that is incomprehensible,' do
ot all within the pale of the established church, who are obe-
ent to her articles, *very greatly* misinterpret the Bible also? In
ort, we know not what to make of Dr. Clarke's assertion that
e *right* of deciding on religious truth is in favour of *power*,
less he means covertly to maintain the policy among learned

men, of having one set of exoteric and another set of esoteric doctrines; to maintain a pretended zeal for public opinions, however erroneous; and to follow in private, unrestrained by the fetters of Established orthodoxy, the light of learning and philosophical inquiry. Yet surely he cannot mean to inculcate on the clergy lessons of the most consummate hypocrisy, to make them the mere tools of statesmen, to destroy in their minds the noble feeling of self-respect, and to render them despicable in the opinion of all enlightened men. We must not suspect Dr. C. of any such intention. Then his preface must be regarded as a species of masked irony; and we may conclude that he has hit on this mode of writing, in order to put at defiance those who would prosecute him for heterodoxy, as poor Mr. Francis Stone was prosecuted; and, by this new manœuvre, more effectually to banish from the Established Church those very opinions for which he ironically professes so high a veneration. Must he not be ironical when he calls on us to assent to the creeds and articles of the church, because they are a convenient *hodge-podge* of errors? 'The authors of them,' [the creeds and articles,] says he, 'have endeavoured to unite in one bond of religious consent *error on all hands for the mutual good of all*; the error of Origen, of Jerome, and of the Church of Rome, with the error of Calvin, of Luther, and of Grotius: for where is human perfection?' Should the Archbishops and the Bishops think that Dr. C. has placed the church on something better than a rock, by giving her so many legs (*of error*) to support her, they are certainly bound in duty to recommend him for the next vacant mitre; which will doubtless become him as much as the triple-crown became Leo X., who, in one of his prayers to the Goddess of Error, gratefully exclaimed, "What a profitable fable is that of Jesus Christ!"

Having endeavoured to struggle through the embarrassment into which we have been thrown by the truly singular preface to this work, we trust that the author will forgive our blundering, if we have blundered, and pardon a plainness of speaking which we can practice without having the fear of the Spiritual Court before our eyes; a fear which seems to have had a due effect on the Doctor, and to have driven him to an expedient by which, in the eye of the discerning, he developes his free sentiments, and at the same time *saves his bacon*—we mean, his *tythe-pig*. As a preliminary to the Hebrew criticisms, we are furnished with the following poetic *Invocation to the Light of Learning*:

> 'Progressive light of learning's ripening age!
> Expand thy broadest lustre o'er my page!
> Dispel each mist of ignorance and pride;
> And bid the bigot's ancient rage subside!

Unveil to mortal eyes thine hidden store ;
And clear from error's blot religion's lore !
Before thy votary spread thy noontide day
Through paths, where great [*] Cappellus led the way !
Where, his bold track to follow not intent,
Hare, Secker, Green, Lowth, Blayney, Newcome, went !
Where close pursuit rewards the critic's toil :
Where richly scatter'd lies barbarian [†] spoil !
‘ Bid thou thy blaze, to sainted [‡] sires unknown,
Mark each prophetic meaning for thine own.
But let thy votary scorn the mystic sense,
Of daring ignorance the vain pretence !
E'en bid him, left behind the papal dreams,
Seek the pure current of the Hebrew streams ;
And dauntless, though unfriended, trace a road,
Where priesthood-ridden critics never trode.
Give him to tell, what first he fear'd to find,
The dictates of Isaiah's mighty mind :
What Anathoth's pathetic bard foretold ;
What plain events Ezekiel's views unfold :
What answer from Jehovah Daniel bore ;
What Christ the temple-worship should restore ;
Nor bid thy votary bow to [§] sceptered names ;
To Ptolemy, to Damasus, to James ;
To that imperfect learning, which appears
Throughout the long descent of former years,
‘ Give him in measured numbers to expose
Of Jacob's tribes the blessings or the woes :
What Beor's son beheld from Pisgah's hill ;
Habákuk's vision of Jehovah's will ;
Beneath her palmy shade Debórah's song ;
The strains of Hannah's joy, and David's plaintive tongue,
‘ Give him, if life Jehovah shall afford,
To fix the sense of each divine record ;
Beneath Bœotian clouds thy boon to know ;
The gift supreme to take, and widely to bestow.’

Nothing having descended to us respecting the prosody of he antient Hebrew poets, we are left to conjecture as to the ules which they followed, and the metrical arrangement which they adopted. The parallelism is the best guide to us in our ignorance; and this, perhaps, as Dr. C. hints, 'may furnish rules for the restoration of corrupted Passages in Isaiah, and other prophetical writings.' He adds, 'if this should so appear, let it not be esteemed a small discovery, by which obscurities may be removed, and a right division of a sentence into metrical lines may exhibit a prophecy in its just features.'

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[*] ‘The immortal author of CRITICA SACRA, which his bigotted nemies termed *Critica Audacia.*’

[†] ‘The spoil of words and meanings left by barbarian interpreters gnorant of their value.’

[‡] ‘ The fathers (of all, Dr. Jortin might have said, as well as) of he fourth and following centuries, considered as historians or reorders of facts, are valuable ; considered as divines, are of very small se and importance for the most part.’ Remarks on Eccles. Hist. ol. iii. p. 84. ed. oct. 1805.’

[§] ‘The reputed instigators of the Greek, Latin, and English verons of the Hebrew.’

Keeping the idea of parallelism in view, a metrical arrangement differing from that of Bishop Lowth is recommended, on the following presumptive principles:

> '1st, That the metrical lines of the Hebrew writers never consisted of more than four terms or words; not excepting very small ones, such as כי and לא; and admitting very rarely, if ever, two words, joined together by maccaph, as one:
>
> '2dly, That such lines most commonly have only three words, which often stand by themselves, and also are not seldom intermixed with those of four: and,
>
> '3dly, That both the lines of four words and those of three are very frequently succeeded by a line of only two words joined to them; usually by the conjunction ו, which comprehends an understood repetition of one or more of the terms of the proposition in the immediately preceding line; and sometimes also by the force of some term in that preceding line, the repetition of which term is to be understood as introducing the verse of two words.
>
> 'To preserve the integrity of these rules, it is further to be presumed; that words of repetition, or prosaical explanation, or of which ellipses are allowed by the language, or which do not materially affect the sense, such as
>
> ,לאמר ,את ,אשר ,כה ,כי ,אמר יהוה
>
> are, whenever the metre requires, to be considered as interpolations, and removed from the text. On the contrary, as some of these small words so often appear, they may, in many cases, when the metre demands, and the sense allows, be judged to have fallen from the text, and be restored. It is hoped that this will not be deemed intemperate criticism.'

This criticism may not be intemperate, but it is bold and hypothetical. Having followed, as nearly as he could, his own rules in the distribution of the sublime ode of Isaiah in the xivth chapter, Dr. Clarke subjoins a general remark on the *ars poetica* of the Hebrews:

> 'The poetic art of the Hebrews was so chastised by nature, that, grasping the sublime substantiality of things, they regarded not at all times the accurate insertion of words and syllables; whose powers were therefore not the less counted in the metre, and whose sense was not the less supplied by the context. A remarkable instance of this is in the particle לא *not*, whose force is not confined to that member of a sentence in which it is read, but is further extended; so that what

been superior to any recognition
miacs.'

All this is very pretty, and ma
bold critics, having lighted the
gate to themselves the honour
coveries, and will exhibit the sac
different arrangement.

When we came to the Patriar
the author to observe his own rul
vours to do in the distribution of t
his English translation. We thi
jected to him that he has leaned to
when, after what he asserted respec
sora, he should have read the Hebrew
points. Let us take, as a specime
Jacob, Gen. xxvii. 28. The Hebrew
ters.

> ' Vejit-tén lechá ha-E-lo
> Mit-tál hasch-schá-ma-jí
> U-misch-ma-né há-a-rétz
> Verábh da-ghán vethi-ró
> Já-chgabh-dhú-cha chga
> Vaj-jísch-ta-hhú lechá le
> Ho-véh ghebhír leé-hhaj
> Vaj-jisch-tá-hha-vú lechá
> Bené ím-mechá.
> O'-re-chá a-rúr,
> U-me-bha-rá-che-chá ba-
>
> ' May God to thee the d
> From the earth's fatne

Here, instead of running two Hebrew lines into one of English, it would have afforded the reader a clearer insight into the subject, had Dr. C., regardless of rhime, arranged his version as nearly as possible, word for word, according to the original, thus:

And give to thee shall God
Of the dew of heaven:
And from the fatness of the earth
Abundance of corn and wine.
Serve thee shall the people,
Bow to thee shall the nations:
Thou shalt be Lord to thy brothers,
And bow to thee shall the sons of thy mother.
He who curses thee is cursed,
He who blesses thee is blessed.

---

which, and in others of the same nature, as he observes, the composition of the thoughts principally consists in a certain equality and resemblance, or parallelism, of the members of any period; so that generally in two members, things correspond with things, and words with words, as if they were purposely measured and reciprocally paired. This construction, he adds, admits many degrees of parallel and much variety; so that sometimes accuracy and perspicuity of parallel prevail, at other times it is more loose and obscure.

'Of the three divisions of this construction, according to Bp. Lowth, the synonymous, the antithetic, and the synthetic parallels, the blessings of Isaac upon Jacob, and of Jacob upon his twelve sons, seem to have been composed.

'The blessing of Isaac upon Jacob* commences with three pairs of synthetic parallels curiously disposed; the first, fourth, and sixth lines consisting of each three measures, of which the last of the first and of the sixth lines are subjects, the rest prædicates; and the second, third, and fifth having only two measures each; of which the last of the fifth line is a subject, the others all prædicates. The metre is not regulated by the measures: but its construction is not less involved, or less regularly irregular. For instance, the first line and the sixth correspond in being nine syllables each in three words each; the second and fifth in being six syllables each in two words each; and the two intermediate lines in being seven syllables each, the former in two words, the latter in three.

'To these succeed a pentacolon of antithetico-synthetic parallels; the first line consisting of three measures, a copula, a subject, and a prædicate; the four following of two measures each; first, two prædicates; second, third, and fourth, a subject and a prædicate each. The first and the last line have each eight syllables, the former in three words, the latter in two; the second line consists of seven syllables in two words: the third and fourth lines consist of five syllables each in two words each; reading ארריך in the contraction, which the language admits and the metre requires.'

* See the metrical analysis of Jacob's blessing upon Reuben.

n the next place, we are presented with a new version, ac-
npanied by a metrical analysis and notes, of the *blessing of*
ob on his twelve sons, Genesis xlix. 2., *et seq.* Some critics
e questioned the probability of the fact that old Jacob, in
last moments, poured forth these benedictions on his sons
hythm, and, like the classical swan, expired in harmonious
nbers. They suppose that the present metrical form of this
king passage of Scripture was given to it by one of the sons
lacob, for the sake of facilitating their remembrance of it;
hat, in the Augustine era of Jewish literature, it assumed
poetic garb. Dr. Clark considers it as having been 'di-
ely indited,' and 'deposited, without the loss or change of
yllable, into the faithful storehouses of the human mind;
il the sublime and divinely-inspired author of the Penta-
ch was ready to stamp it in characters of eternity, and des-
it to confer an endless consolation upon all the future
s of men.' If, however, the text has undergone the alter-
ns which this writer supposes, and the emendations which
as suggested are necessary to restore it to its original state,
cannot regard it as having been stamped in characters of
rnity. Yet, though we are not believers in the absolute
ity of the present Hebrew text, we are fully convinced that no
k has been preserved and transmitted to posterity with so
ch attention to accuracy as the Pentateuch; and that no
ciful metrical arrangements, made by modern Hebraists,
warrant alterations of the present Hebrew text, without
authority of some antient MS. or MSS. Dr. C., moreover,
rder to have ample scope in his mode of voweling and
ding the Hebrew, has, with some modern scholars, spoken
contemptuously of the Masores; calling them 'dotting
tors,' and describing them as 'gentlemen who, about the
inning of the eighth century, in their seat of sloth and igno-
ce upon the banks of the lake of Tiberias, were the inven-
of the sublime learning of Kamets, Tseri, Scheva, Segol,
' As to the invention of the points, we have nothing to
with it; the question is, does the Masoretic punctuation, as
name implies (מס־, masar, *tradidit*,) *transmit* the antient
ding of the Hebrew, or afford us that sound and pronunci-
n of Hebrew words which prevailed when it was a spoken
guage? By asserting that it does not, we in fact tell the
s that we know their language better than they know it
nselves, which is not a little presumptuous; and by follow-
Mascleff, Parkhurst, and others, who reject the Masoretic
els, we adopt a mode of reading which is at variance with
evidence of the New Testament on the subject: to say
hing of that of Origen, in the third century, who in his

Hexapla has presented us with the then pronunciation of the Hebrew, expressed in Greek characters. Shall we find in him, or in the Gospel, any authority for the modern *Aleim* instead of *Elohim?* Had אלהים been pronounced *Aleim*, in our Saviour's time, we must have found Αλι or Αλωι, and not Ελι or Ελωι in Matt. xxvii. 46.; and Origen would have read αλειμ, and not ελωειμ, in Gen. i. 1. The student of Hebrew in the present day must admit, if he has a grain of modesty, that the Masorets, who succeeded each other at different periods, must have been much more *at home* on the subject of Hebrew pronunciation than he can be; and that these *professed preservers and transmitters* of the antient mode of speaking the Hebrew language, though no doubt occasionally wrong, must have been more generally right than we can be by proceeding to *vowelize* the Hebrew at random; and that nothing but the strongest reasons can justify a modern, who acquires a smattering of the language from a grammar and a lexicon, in departing from them. The Hebrew cannot be read without vowel-points, either expressed or understood; and though the Synagogue-copies of the Jewish Scriptures are without the Masoretic punctuation, they are read according to it by the officiating rabbi or priest: — Jewish children, also, are always taught this punctuation, as necessary to the correct pronunciation of the language of their forefathers. These remarks, we think, ought to be taken into consideration by the readers of Dr. Clarke's volume; and they merit his particular notice, because, in spite of his ridicule on the 'dotting doctors,' he could not have proceeded altogether without their assistance. In his readings of the passage before us, how would he have known the letters which are to be duplicated, without the Dagesh? and how would he have ventured, without the aid of the points, to read איש *isch*, in one syllable, instead of aisch? Why does he not read *beni* instead of *bené (filii)*, and *attè* instead of *atta (tu)*, &c.*? —but let us proceed to his new version. The 3d verse of Gen. xlix. he thus puts into modern characters:

'Rá-av-bán becho-rí át-ta,
Co-hhí verí-scho-níth o-ní,

---

* Whether we follow or reject the assistance afforded by the Masorets, the laws of Hebrew versification cannot now be recovered. "A man born deaf" (says Dr. Lowth in the Preliminary Dissertation to his new version of Isaiah) "may as reasonably pretend to acquire an idea of sound, as the critic of these days to attain the true modulation of Hebrew by metre." We object, therefore, to alterations of and to bold liberties with the Hebrew text, for the sake of aiding a fanciful hypothesis.

> ' Jé-ther seéth vejé-ther chgóz.
> Pa-hház cam-má-jim al tó-thar,
> Ci chgal-lí-tha misch-cabh a-bhí-chi,
> A'z hhil-lál-ta jétzu-chgáj chgo-léh.'

Thus translated into English metre :

> ' Reuben, first-born of this my honour'd train !
> Strength of my youth ! my manhood's prime maintain :
> Excel as I excell'd ; my valor prove :
> But shun the wand'rings of incestuous love ;
> Which to thy father's couch his Reuben led,
> And fix'd thy footsteps foul upon my bed.'

Ve say nothing of Dr. C.'s substituting in verse 2. '*le*
ra-el' for *al* Jis-ra-el : but we cannot pass over without notice
substitution, in the passage above, of *verí-scho-nith*, for *vere-*
th (וְרֵאשִׁית) and *misch-cabh* for *misch-cebhi* (מִשְׁכְּבֵי).
Doctor requires these alterations to support his metrical
em, and he begs, in the latter instance, to be allowed the
ty which he has taken ; but is it not better to question his
wlege of Hebrew poetry, than to sanction such bold
ndations ? In behalf of his new translation, ' excell as I
ll'd,' &c. Dr. C. remarks, in a note, that ' the common
ion of the original is inconsistent with Moses's blessing of
ben, Deut. xxxiii. 6. *Let Reuben live and not die*,' &c. : but
an perceive no inconsistency in the two passages, as they
ar in the English Bible. Jacob is speaking of Reuben's
ral character ; Moses, of the tribe of Reuben, or of his
endants. Nothing is more evident than that Jacob meant
prove the incontinency, not to say the lubricity, of his son
ben, who was like water overflowing the banks which
t to have contained it. This idea the LXX., or Alexan-
version conveys, and Dr. C. has expressed it with suffi-
strength. Our objection to his rendering is that he has
ether sunken the reproof which Jacob intended to convey,
ving to the whole passage the form of exhortation ; where-
our judgment, the dying patriarch meant to say, " though,
en, thou wert my first born, the prime of my vigour, and
ior both in dignity and strength, by departing from thy
thou hast failed to excel." We cannot agree with Dr. C.
' Jacob's blessing was unmixed ; that only a *gentle* re-
is meant to be conveyed by the words אל תותר ; and
they seem to require and admit the interpretation *Thou*
not then excel.' Surely, Jacob did not mean to speak so
y of the crime of incest, as to say that it was not *excel-*

v. 5. the proper name Simeon, or Simhon, is here dis-
figured

figured into '*Scha-máchg-on*;' and the reading 'bim-ghú-rahem' is substituted for mecherothehem (מְכֵרֹתֵיהֶם): but on what authority?

The second two lines, thus exhibited in Roman characters,

> 'Besódh-am al tá-bhoí naph-schí,
> Bik-hál-am al te-hhád cebho-dhí;'

contain a very complete specimen of Hebrew parallelism. They are, as Dr. C. remarks, 'synthetic parallels, strongly partaking of the synonymous, and mutually identical in their prefixes, affixes, and copulæ:' but here, again, an alteration is suggested, תבאי for תבא; and the sense of the Hebrew is attempted in the following couplet:

> 'No league with them my safety could secure,
> No seat near them mine honour could endure.'

We do not undertake minutely to comment on every variation which Dr. Clarke has introduced: but we shall observe that, in the second line of the blessing pronounced on Jacob, we do not see the reason why the Doctor should read '*o-jebh*,' omitting the pronoun '*cha*', when in the preceding line he reads '*a-hhí-cha*,' with the affixed pronoun; or that in the fourth line he should read '*cegúr*' for *gur* (catulus); or for the omission of the former *lehhoph* (*portus*) in the blessing on Zebulon; or for adding *hahu* at the end of the first line on Dan, &c. Indeed, Dr. C.'s scheme is the bed of Procrustes; whatever is too long for it is lopped off, and whatever is too short is stretched out to fit it.* In his own version, he has *port* in one line and *harbour* (its synonym) in the next: but in the original the former *lehhoph* is regarded as a gloss, because, according to his idea, it makes the line too long; though it is difficult to conceive how such a gloss could be necessary.

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* Trifles do not interrupt Dr. Clarke in his metrical arrangements. It is nothing to him to take away a word here, and to add another there. One line of the blessing on Asher must submit to very rough treatment before it can be brought to proper order. Instead of the reading according to the best Hebrew copies, מעדני מלך (*delicias regis*,) the short word צדין (*deliciæ*) is substituted. We protest against this mode of occasional curtailment and addition in the present instance, since Dr. C. has no data on which he can proceed; and his respect for this passage, as inspired, ought to have restrained him from taking such liberties. In this way, what metrical hypothesis could not be supported?—We make no particular animadversions on the syllabic division of words, by which they are rendered of greater or less length by the admission or rejection of the Masoretic vowels, because this would be tiresome to our readers.

The common translation of the twelfth verse, which respects Judah, is not surely improved by

> 'Yet mock the sparkling wine his eyes more bright;
> And more than milk his polished teeth are white.'

After all the pains which Dr. C. has taken with the poetic part of the 49th Chapter of Genesis, we do not perceive that he has illustrated it. Geddes's remark on the blessing pronounced on Joseph gives a clearer idea of the beauty of this passage, than the poetry of the present analyser. "The remaining part of the benediction (said Dr. Geddes) is delightful, and surpasses any thing of the kind. How ample and fine a description of Mount-Ephraim and Mount-Gilead, and the territories of the two states! Every earthly blessing is here accumulated, that the heart of man can desire:—dews from heaven—springs from the earth — fish from the seas and lakes — a numerous offspring both of children and cattle — a fertile and salubrious soil — peaceful days and lasting prosperity, — are all wished for Joseph by his affectionate Father." *Critical Remarks*, p. 155.

In connection with the mention of Dr. Geddes, we must not omit to advert to Dr. Clarke's declared opposition to the new rendering which Geddes gave to the 10th verse by rejecting *Shilo* as a proper name, and inserting in its stead "*peaceful prosperity*." Here the verse preserves its generally supposed reference to Christ:

> 'From Judah's tribe the sceptred majesty
> Shall ne'er depart; nor one to teach the code,
> His *banners* * from between the law of God;
> Till peaceful Shiloh's tranquil reign arrive
> And to the gather'd world new precepts give.'

At the word Shiloh is a note, in which we are referred to the concluding comment on the prophecy which is supposed to fortell much war among the descendants of Jacob; and Dr. C. adds, 'if so much war is predicted throughout this prophecy, what becomes of the "*peaceful prosperity*," the rendering of the word SHILOH by the late Dr. Geddes? and which he supposed to have existed when the tabernacle was set up at *Shiloh*, and to have given name to that city; not seeming to recollect, that Shiloh was in the portion of the tribe of Ephraim, not of Judah; — and that the ark went thence with the Israelites to battle in the last days of Eli, and was taken by the Philistines. 1 Sam. iv. 11.

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* By reading דגלין instead of רגלין, or by the change of resch into daleth, *banners* are introduced instead of *feet*. We prefer *feet*.

'That the tabernacle (continues Dr. C.) set up at Shiloh was an "occurrence relative to the tribe of *Judah*," (Geddes's Critical Remarks upon the Pentateuch), is contradicted in the lxxviiith Psalm, v. 60—69. "He forsook the tabernacle of Shiloh, the tent he placed among men: and delivered his strength (meaning the same tabernacle or ark) into captivity," to the Philistines, "and his glory into the enemies' hand. Moreover, he refused the tabernacle of Joseph," &c. i. e. he allowed not that the tabernacle should again be at Shiloh in the tribe of Ephraim: "but chose the tribe of Judah," in which it continued at Kirjathjearim many years, after having been brought thither by the Philistines; and chose "the mount Zion which he loved," and to which in the tribe of *Benjamin* David conducted it.'

These objections to the conjecture of Geddes may be deemed of some weight, but every mode of interpreting this text is oppressed with difficulties. Perhaps he would refer the *peaceful prosperity* to the reign of Solomon.

We must postpone our notice of the remaining contents of this book to a future article.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. III. *Elements of Chemistry.* By J. Murray, Lecturer on Chemistry, &c., Edinburgh. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

Art. IV. *The Elements of Chemistry.* By Thomas Thomson, M.D. F.R.S.E. 8vo. 12s. Longman and Co. 1810.

The first edition of Mr. Murray's Elements of Chemistry was published some years ago, and was at the time briefly noticed by us; (Vol. xxxix. p. 98.) and of his "*System* of Chemistry" we made our report in Vol. lviii. p. 181: but the former has undergone so many alterations, that we are induced to bring it again before our readers; and we are the more disposed to do this by the circumstance of Dr. Thomson having lately written an elementary treatise, which professes to have the same general object with that of Mr. Murray, so that it becomes desirable to consider them in connection with each other.

Mr. Murray informs us that his intention is 'to give such a view of chemistry as shall convey a just knowledge of its leading principles and more important facts, without including the discussion of controverted opinions, or the statement of those minute details which have with propriety a place in a systematic work.' The two volumes of which it consists contain about one third of the quantity of matter in the "System;" and the author, for the most part, follows the same plan, and treats on the different branches of the subject in the same order. Yet it is not on this account to be considered as consisting merely of extracts from the larger work; for even where the 'Elements' most nearly resemble the "System," each part appears to have been written over again, so as to be a condensation rather than a selection. Mr. Murray's system we have always considered as peculiarly excellent in its general views, and this excellence is fully maintained in the volumes now before us. As specimens of neat abstracts of facts and opinions, we shall refer our readers to the chapters on Caloric and on Galvanism; and from the latter we shall quote the comparative view of the merits of the two hypotheses which have been proposed to account for the action of the apparatus, — the one originally suggested by Volta, deducing the effect from the influence of the metals on each other, — the second being that which was formed by the English chemists, attributing the primary effect to the chemical action of the fluid:

> 'There is some difficulty in deciding on the merits of these hypotheses, though that of Volta is on the whole superior to the other. It has the important advantage of resting on a principle which is sufficiently established that two metals by mere contact alter their electrical states. And, from this principle, combined with the fact, which appears also to be proved, that the interposed liquids have little of this electro-motive power, while they are conductors of electricity, it appears to follow that from such an arrangement as that which constitutes the galvanic apparatus, a stream of electricity must be put in motion, and the two extremities of the series must be in the opposite electrical states.
>
> 'The principal difficulty which attends it, and which affords some ground for the opposite hypothesis to rest on, is that the power of the interposed liquids, in exciting galvanism, does not appear to be proportional merely to their superior conducting power, but to be connected with the chemical action they exert; those being most powerful in exciting it which act chemically with greatest energy, and the excitation in a great measure ceasing when that action ceases. Yet this difficulty is perhaps counterbalanced by the opposite fact, equally established, that the power of certain liquids in exciting galvanism is more than proportional to their chemical action; alkaline solutions, for example, or solutions of sea-salt or sal-ammoniac, affording, next to diluted acids, the liquids best adapted to excite galvanic, though they do not exert any great chemical energy; and in comparing them with these acids, their exciting power is unquestionably much greater than their chemical action. If chemical changes, therefore, at all operate in the production of galvanic electricity, it is probably only as a subordinate cause, modifying the more important one from the electro-motive power.'

If we were to point out any defect in these Elements, it would be that they are rather too bulky, considering that the object is merely to convey the first principles of the science, and to prepare for the larger work. The present volumes consist of above 1000 pages; so that it might be said that the student, who was disposed to peruse so extensive a production, would not find much more difficulty in embracing the 3000 of which the "System" is composed: — but, at the same time that we make this remark, we deem it only justice to add that, were we to consider the present publication as independent of any other, it contains no part that we should wish to be omitted.

Dr. Thomson proposes to himself very nearly the same object with Mr. Murray; viz. 'to furnish an accurate outline of the present state of chemistry, to those persons who are commencing the study of the science, or who may be unable or unwilling to peruse my larger and more complete work on the subject. All historical details, and all references to authorities were out of the question. My sole object was to include the greatest possible number of facts within the smallest possible space, and to arrange them in a clear and perspicuous manner.' So far as he has made brevity his sole purport, we must confess that Dr. T. has been eminently successful; for we think that he is fully warranted in his assertion that, among all the elementary treatises which have appeared, either in this country or on the continent, none 'contains the same quantity of matter within so small a space.' This brevity is no doubt a decided advantage, and peculiarly characteristic of the nature of the work in question:—but we are disposed to think that it has, in the present instance, been pushed beyond its due limits; and that, by crowding a multitude of facts into a very small space, and almost entirely omitting the connecting links of theory and hypothesis, Dr. Thomson has produced a dry detail, little calculated to cherish the ardour of youthful curiosity. The volume has indeed more the manner of a text-book than that of an elementary treatise.

For the most part, Dr. T. follows the same arrangement which he observed in *his* "System*," but with the omission of some considerable portions, which were supposed to be less essential to the general plan. "The chemical examination of nature," which before composed nearly an entire volume, is now omitted; and the whole of the third book, which gave an account of affinity and of the constitution of gases and liquids, and consisted of above 100 pages, is reduced to 16. In consequence of these contractions, and the condensation of the whole, the '*Elements*' do not extend to one-sixth part of the "*System*;" being not more than half the bulk of those of Mr.

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* See Rev. Vol. xlix. p. 397. — l. p. 46. — & lv. p. 91.

Murray. Dr. Thomson's style is always clear, precise, and perspicuous, and is perfectly adapted to the object of the present work. As a fair specimen of the execution, we quote the section which gives an account of hydrogen.

'Hydrogen, like oxygen, is a gas. It was first called *inflammable air*, and Mr. Cavendish must be considered as its real discoverer.

'It may be procured by putting some clean iron filings into a glass retort, and pouring over them sulphuric acid diluted with thrice its bulk of water. A violent boiling takes place, or, as chemists term it, an *effervescence*, gas issues abundantly from the beak of the retort, and may be received like the oxygen in glass vessels standing in a trough of water.

'It is invisible and colourless, and possesses the mechanical properties of common air.

'When prepared by the above process, it has a peculiar smell, ascribed at present to the presence of a little *oil*, formed by the action of the acid on the iron filings.

'It is the lightest gaseous body known. Its specific gravity, according to Kirwan, is 0.0843, according to Lavoisier, 0.0756, according to Fourcroy, Vauquelin, and Seguin, 0.0887. According to these various estimates, 100 cubic inches under the mean pressure and temperature weigh 2.613 grains, 2.372 grains, and 2.75 grains Troy. It is about 12 times lighter than common air.

'No combustible substance will burn in it; and no animal can breathe it for any length of time without death.

'It burns when touched with a red hot iron, or when brought near a flaming taper. The colour of the flame is yellowish, and it gives but little light. If it be previously mixed with half its bulk of oxygen gas, it burns instantaneously, and with a loud explosion like the report of a pistol. If the mixture be put into a strong glass cylinder, standing over water, and kindled by an electric spark, the whole of the two gases disappear, and the cylinder is filled with the water. If the vessel be standing over mercury, or be hermetically sealed, its inner surface becomes coated with pure water. This water was found by Cavendish equal in weight to the two gasses. Hence it has been inferred that water is a compound of oxygen and hydrogen in the proportion of $85\frac{2}{3}$ by weight of oxygen to $14\frac{1}{3}$ of hydrogen.

'Hydrogen is not sensibly altered or absorbed by water. 100 cubic inches of water deprived of air absorb 1.53 inches of hydrogen.'

We conclude by remarking that, whereas in comparing the "*Systems*" of these two authors we gave a preference to that of Dr. Thomson, in contrasting their 'Elements' we must assign the superiority to Mr. Murray.

Art. V. *A Short Account of the Laws and Institutions of Moses*; showing that they were worthy of their Divine Author, being fitted for the Accomplishment of the most important Purposes. By Henry Fergus, Minister, in Dunfermline. 8vo. pp. 136. Printed at Dunfermline, and sold by Underwood, London.

According to Bishop Warburton, the doctrines of the Divine Unity and of a Future State were taught in the Eleusinian Mysteries; and because these ceremonies were borrowed from Egypt, some persons have conjectured that Moses, having been "*learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians*," obtained his knowlege of the absolute Unity of God from their Mysteries: but they, who would thus account for this prominent feature of the Mosaic law, must be surprised at the Legislator's silence respecting a Future State. They seem also to forget that concealment was the master-principle of the Mysteries; and that it is not very probable that Moses, had he been solemnly initiated, would have violated his oath by divulging this great secret to the multitude at large. This hypothesis, moreover, which was invented to obviate the necessity of admitting the Divine Appointment of Moses, affords but scanty assistance in explaining the peculiar *theocratic* government under which he placed the whole Jewish nation. The laws and constitution of this people cannot be said to have been borrowed from any antient political or religious system; since they bear in their front a doctrine which was professed only by the Jews, and were avowedly meant to keep the tribes distinct from all other nations. The civil constitution and sacred ritual of the Israelites form, by their singularity, and by the express object of their appointment, a very curious chapter in the history of mankind; and, though inveloped in much obscurity, and constituting a favourite theme with Infidels, they are not easily to be explained without the admission of their divine origin.—In the short account before us, Mr. Fergus has given evidence of his having studied the subject; and his pamphlet displays, in a concise yet luminous manner, the several topics which the civil and ecclesiastical government of the Hebrews includes. He modestly informs us that his essay is meant only as a sketch, and in his notes he refers to authors who furnish more copious details. It is detached from a *History of the Hebrews*, on which the author is employed, and is sent out (like the dove from the ark) by way of experiment; in order that by its reception he may calculate what kind of encouragement he is likely to receive from the public in the prosecution of his great undertaking. We should augur from this specimen that his abilities and industry are equal to the task in which he is engaged; and, from the judicious reflections with which this work abounds, we should pronounce Mr. Fergus to be endued with a liberal and enlightened mind.

In point of territory and numbers, the Jews were an inconsiderable people. Canaan being 150 miles long, and its medium width about 50, it may be estimated, as Mr. F. remarks, to contain 7,000,000 of acres: but this extent is not equal to afford support to the existing nation of the Hebrews, if they could be all assembled in their antient land, and renders improbable the account given by Josephus respecting the population of Jerusalem at the time of its being besieged by Titus, though this was the period of the Passover.

It is the theocratic constitution of the Jews which alone confers importance on them in the eye of the historian; and, since our own religion has its root and foundation in that of this singular people, the Mosaic system will always merit the study of those who desire an accurate conception of the Gospel of Christ. Mr. F. has not overlooked the bearing of Christianity on Judaism, and has endeavoured to elucidate the Evangelists by adverting to the usages and modes of speech which were prevalent in Palestine at the time of our Lord's ministry. We find him attempting, in one of his notes, to explain "*the cock-crowing*" mentioned in the history of Peter's denial of his Master, and which has occasioned sacred critics so much difficulty. He supposes that the *third* watch, or three o'clock in the morning, was called "the cock-crowing;" and that the meaning of Matt. xxvi. 34. is that before the end of not enjoin: no man could be hindered from doing what it did not forbid: no man could be condemned but when it pronounced him guilty: and no man could be subjected to any penalty but what it prescribed and applied to his particular case. In society, wealth naturally creates influence: but in the Hebrew state this natural influence of wealth was not increased by law. In the eye of the law the poor and the rich stood, in all respects, on a level. No priviledges, no immunities, fostered the pride of the wealthy: and no degrading disqualifications depressed the spirits of the poor.'—

'Some of the laws are laid down in the form of precepts, without any special penalty annexed to the transgression of them. But even those precepts had this great sanction, the displeasure of an omniscient legislator and king, who could easily inflict severe calamities on those who disregarded his authority. Accordingly his authority is often urged as the ground of obedience: I AM THE LORD YOUR GOD. Besides, such transgressions, prior at least to the full establishment of the law, were, on an appeal to the Sovereign, punishable according to his pleasure. The favour of God and many blessings were promised to the obedient: but curses were denounced against the disobedient. Severity of punishment was no prominent feature in the law of Moses. Instead of terrifying from crimes by excessive penalties, it aimed at the prevention of them by instilling into the mind right sentiments, and training to virtuous habits. Devotion, benevolence, equity, industry, and sobriety, became, by means of education and discipline, familiar to the subjects. The object of the law-giver was to make the people happy, by making them good and virtuous.

'The laws of the Hebrews were few and simple; but, as the transactions of the people were of the same description, those laws were sufficient for the preservation of order and the administration of justice. They were all framed by JEHOVAH before the settlement of the people in Canaan; and they were unalterable. No person was invested with power to repeal an old statute, or to enact a new one. To do either was expressly forbidden. The rulers might make such rules as we commonly call *by-laws;* but the law of Moses was the unalterable law both in civil and ecclesiastical affairs. Thus those invested with authority were prevented from increasing their influence and expenditure by new establishments and new offices, and from oppressing the people by endless taxations.'

High Treason, Organization of the Tribes, Constitution of the Tribe of Levi, Tithes, First Fruits, Punishments, National Council, the Judge, the Oracle, and the Defence of the Country, are subjects which are distinctly considered and explained. Under the last of these heads, Mr. Fergus takes a comparative view of antient and modern war:

'In the Hebrew state there was no standing army; but the whole of the people capable of bearing arms could be summoned to the defence of the country on any emergency. This national militia served without pay; and consequently the Hebrew armies could not long keep the field. Nor indeed was this needful in the mode of warfare

practised

practised in those countries. War was not, as in modern Europe, reduced to a science. Tactics were unknown. One bold attack, short struggle, and bloody pursuit commonly terminated the campaign. The Hebrews were forbidden to multiply horses: and in their armies there were no cavalry. The mountainous nature of Canaan was not favourable to the rearing of horses, and rendered them of no great service in war. The same circumstance, together with the crowded population of the country, gave the ox a decided preference for agricultural labour.

'War is a dreadful evil; and an awful responsibility attaches to those rulers who plunge a people into its horrors, without exhausting all the means of conciliation. Accordingly the Hebrews were not allowed, like the tiger that springs from the thicket upon the unwary passenger, to fall insidiously upon an unsuspecting neighbour. It was not lawful for them to commence hostilities till they had offered terms of peace.'

The Mosaic ritual having for its object the acknowlegement of Jehovah as the *King* as well as the *God* of the Jews, many of its parts directly point to this end. To us the idea is gross and anthropomorphic: but to furnish a table for the Deity was not a revolting thought in idolatrous ages; and among a people not accustomed to mental exercises, it was necessary to express the feelings of the heart by the use of visible objects. Thus, 'in one point of view, the sacrifices under the Mosaic law furnished a table for the king, and may be considered as a tax for supporting the crown and the officers of state. They were also mulcts for transgressions of some of the laws of the theocracy; expiating sins committed against JEHOVAH considered merely as king of the Hebrews, and entitling to life in the land of Canaan. In a religious point of view, the sacrifices and oblations of the ritual expressed by action what prayer utters in words; gratitude, petition, confession, and supplication.'

After the sacrifices, Mr. F. enumerates the various Feasts, the Distinction of Animals into clean and unclean, Circumcision, Purifications, &c. observed by the Jews; and, in conclusion, he justly remarks that 'the institutions of Moses were adapted to a state of manners, opinions, and circumstances extremely different from our own; and therefore we are very liable to error when judging concerning these institutions. It is no way surprising though we be unable distinctly to perceive and illustrate the wisdom and propriety of some of them.' To prevent or suppress polytheism and idolatry was manifestly their object, and so far they have succeeded; for however the moral character of the Jews has been affected by their becoming a dispersed and trafficking, instead of a quiet, agricultural, and pastoral, people, they of all nations have the most sacred reverence for Jehovah as *One God.*

Art. VI. *Memoirs of the Wernerian Natural History Society*, Vol. I. for the Years 1808-9-10. With Fifteen Engravings. 8vo. pp. 644. 1l. 1s. Boards. White and Cochrane, and Murray. 1811.

Without wishing to insinuate the slightest disparagement of the well earned reputation of the geologist of Freyberg, we may be allowed to question the propriety of designating by his name a Society which seems to have been formed for the promotion of Natural History in general. Exclusive titles strictly appertain to exclusive objects; and a person who was unacquainted with the constitution and proceedings of the learned body, the first volume of whose transactions we have now the pleasure to announce, would be justified in the supposition that its labours were devoted to the illustration of a cumbersome apparatus of external characters, to descriptions of transition-rocks and formation-suites, to disquisitions on the newest flœtz, and to detailed expositions of the *oryctognosy* and *geognosy* of the heath-clad hills of Caledonia. We are not, however, particularly solicitous of disputing about a name, especially when it is once fixed, and can no longer be retracted without manifesting disrespect to an individual, who holds an eminent rank in his professional department of science. Neither do we very seriously object to the want of a preface in the volume before us; though we could have welcomed any account, however summary of the origin, progress, and regulations of an institution which reflects so much credit on its authors, and which promises to be productive of the most beneficial results to the British empire.

In the printed list of members, we perceive only three *Honorary*, namely Professor Werner, Sir Joseph Banks, and Mr. Kirwan; forty-three *Resident*, seventy-nine *Non-Resident*, and a hundred *Foreign*; the whole composing a most respectable aggregate, of which all the individuals are distinguished by their writings, their academical situations, or their well known predilection for the pursuits of Natural History. It is stated that 'in laying its Memoirs before the Public, this Society does not hold itself responsible for the facts or opinions which may be advanced on the various topics of Natural History that are discussed. These, accordingly, must be distinctly understood as resting entirely on the individual authority of the respective writers who have favoured the Society with communications.'

The volume contains thirty-four memoirs, which we shall briefly notice in their order.

On Cotemporaneous Veins. By Professor Jameson.—In this paper, which occupies only *six pages*, the learned President of the Society attempts to define the characters of *true* and *contemporaneous* veins; or, in other words, to distinguish between those which were formed at a different period, and those which were formed at the same period, relatively to the masses in which they are included. The epithet *true*, applied to one class of mineral veins, would naturally seem to intimate that all those of another description were *false:* at any rate, the terms *true* and *contemporaneous* do not sufficiently contrast with each other. The distinction for which the Professor contends is probably hypothetical; or, if really founded in fact, the marks of discrimination would require to be stated with logical precision. The mere circumstance of dimension, on which the author seems to lay considerable stress, can scarcely be assumed as a safe criterion. We are told, for example, that *true* veins are from a few inches to several fathoms wide, and from a few yards to several hundred yards long; while the *contemporaneous* are from a few inches to the smallest discernible breadth, and from a few inches to upwards of a hundred feet in length. The breadth of veins of both descriptions may, therefore, obviously coincide, and the length may not always be easily ascertained. Besides, are we assured that all mineral veins may be comprized within the extremes of dimensions which are here assigned to them? or should one present itself, closely bordering on the conterminous limits of the two characters, ought the most minute fraction, on one side or the other, to fix its station in the system? or, lastly, let us suppose that the difference in point of extent is always manifest, on what principle are we warranted to infer that the larger is uniformly true, and the smaller contemporaneous? Veins of the former description, we are given to understand, traverse *different strata*, unless the strata be of *uncommon thickness:* but is *uncommon thickness* a scientific expression? or how shall we determine its precise amount? Their direction, it seems, is not tortuous, and they seldom give off many branches: but, if they *sometimes* do, a genuine vein may, in this respect at least, be occasionally confounded with one that is deemed contemporaneous; and how can we satisfy our conviction that the latter is never straight? Should the affirmative of this question be seriously maintained, then we must beg leave to state that we have repeatedly observed straight and unbranched veins, of dimensions greatly inferior to those which are here ascribed to true veins.

The following symptoms are, perhaps, less equivocal: but the qualifying adverbs, which we print in Italic, may satisfy our readers that they are not to be received as constant and infallible tests of the *truth* of mineral veins, in the Wernerian acceptation of the phrase;

> 'The mass of the vein is *generally* distinctly separated from its walls: it is *frequently* disposed in beds or layers, and these are parallel with the walls of the vein. At the outgoing of bedded veins, the beds are near the walls; but farther down, they approach the middle of the veins, and consequently are so arranged, that the newer beds are contained in the older. They *often* contain fragments, which lie promiscuously, and are either acute-angular, blunt-angular, or rounded. Lastly, the materials of true veins, are *more or less* different from the rock which they traverse, and the same vein *sometimes* contains several formations.'

In one passage, we are informed that the mass of the contemporaneous veins differs but little in its constituent parts from that of the rock which it traverses; in another, that contemporaneous veins occur, composed of minerals which differ considerably from those of the rock in which they are contained; while a third thus completes the measure of perplexing incongruity: 'Numerous examples also occur of cotemporaneous veins filled with materials entirely different from the rock in which they are situated: thus, *clay-slate* is sometimes traversed by cotemporaneous veins of quartz: *serpentine*, by cotemporaneous veins of magnetic ironstone; and *clay ironstone*, by numerous cotemporaneous veins of calc-spar, and also of mineral pitch.'

On the whole, the Wernerian doctrine of the origin of mineral veins is, perhaps, not less fanciful than others which have been proposed; and, with regard to the alleged distinction in question, we may be permitted to retain a certain degree of rational scepticism, until the distinction itself can be proved to rest on a more secure and satisfactory basis.

An Analysis of Fluor-Spar. By Thomas Thomson, M.D. F.R.S.E.—From a very incorrect analysis of this mineral salt, ascribed (though without sufficient evidence) to Scheele, and published by Kirwan and Gren, it was believed that fluat of lime contains 27 per cent. of water; although, when strongly heated in a wind-furnace, it loses on an average only one-six-hundredth part of its weight. Dr. Thomson's cautious and delicate examination of the same substance gives this much more probable result:

Lime, -	67,34
Fluoric Acid,	32,66
	100.00

While this ingenious chemist was busied with his experiments, he was not aware of an analysis of fluor-spar by Klaproth, conducted in a different manner, but leading to very nearly the same result; namely, lime, $67\frac{3}{4}$; and fluoric acid, $32\frac{1}{4}$.

On the Asclepiadeæ, a natural order of Plants separated from the Apocineæ of Jussieu. By Robert Brown, Lib. Lin. Soc.—Although this paper bespeaks singular acuteness and ability, and forms an article of considerable length, it is little susceptible of abridgement. While the very ingenious author permits all the species of *Apocynum* to retain the former designation of their natural order, he includes under the *Asclepiadeæ* all those which agree in having pollen coalescing into masses, which are fixed or applied to processes of the stigma, in a determinate manner. This plan of subdivision is certainly preferable to that of bringing the whole under an unweildy and overgrown order; 'the distinguishing characters of which, could they be obtained, must probably be extremely vague, and clogged with numerous exceptions.'

An Account of Five rare species of British Fishes. By George Montagu, Esq. F.L.S. and M.W.S. — Of these fishes the first belongs to the Apodal order; and, as it is now for the first time introduced into the system of Ichthyology, we shall quote the particulars of its history as they are recorded by Mr. Montagu:

> 'ZIPHOTHECA TETRADENS. — The length of the fish is five feet six inches, depth at the gills four inches and a half, and from thence to the vent the size is nearly the same; from the vent it gradually decreases to the commencement of the anal fin, where it is about two inches in depth; and afterwards decreases more suddenly to the end of that fin, where it becomes nearly round and about half an inch in diameter: its thickness just behind the gills scarcely exceeds one inch and a quarter; behind the vent one inch and one eighth; at the commencement of the anal fin, five eighths of an inch; and across the gills

were taken out, except one left by accident, which was furnished with teeth on the inside of the arched bone: the eyes are very large, being nearly one inch and three quarters in diameter, independent, not covered with the common skin; irides silvery, nostrils ovate, placed just before the eyes: gill-coverts of one very thin plate: pectoral fins five inches long, consisting of twelve rays, the lower ones exceeding the upper by one half: instead of ventral fins there are two oblong silvery scales, half an inch in length, partly detached from the body, and connected to each other at the base: these are situated considerably behind the pectoral fins: the anus is about half way between the two extremities: the anal fin commences at about eleven inches from the end of the tail, and runs within one and a half of the caudal fin, containing seventeen rays: the dorsal fin arises on the back of the head, and continues uninterrupted till it reaches the posterior end of the anal fin, and consists of one hundred and five rays, increasing in length from one inch and a quarter, to one and three quarters near the tail; the three first rays are sub-spinous, the rest soft: the caudal fin is about three inches long, and forked: the lateral line is slightly elevated, and runs straight, in a middle direction, till it approaches the head, and then gradually rises, and terminates over the gills: the colour of the skin, which is quite smooth and destitute of scales, is like burnished silver, with a bluish tint.

'This singular fish was taken in Salcomb harbour on the coast of South Devon, on the 4th of June last (1808). It was swimming with astonishing velocity, with its head above water;—to use the fisherman's expression, "going as swift as a bird;" and was killed by a blow of an oar.

'It was made a public show in Kingsbridge, where in one day a guinea was taken for its exhibition at one penny each person. It was embowelled before I first saw it; and to prevent the destruction of so valuable an acquisition to natural history, I prevented a journey intended for it the next day to a distant fair, from whence had it ever returned it would not have been (as it was now warm weather) a fit subject for preservation, or minute description.

'In preparing this fish, I observed within the skin, on the abdominal parts, a great many small ascarides, pointed at each end, and of a whitish colour: they were all coiled up in a spiral manner. On the head, beneath the skin, and along the root of the dorsal fin, were several of a species of *echinorhynchus*, of a yellow colour, nearly two inches in length, and more than one eighth of an inch in diameter: the proboscis short, with a round termination furnished with spines: the anterior end of the body sub-clavated, with a groove each side: posterior part wrinkled, and obtusely pointed.

'These *vermes* had formed sinuses under the skin, and were firmly attached by one end. I do not find this species described.'

As a very young specimen has since been found, about four miles east of the Start-point, we may conclude that the species really inhabits our seas, though it had so long eluded the observation of the curious.

The next of these marine rarities is *Syngnathus æquoreus*, or

Æquoreal Pipe-fish. The individual, from which the description was taken, was caught at Salcomb in 1807; and a dead specimen, about fifteen inches in length, was picked up on the same part of the coast, in the summer of 1809. This species is certainly of rare occurrence: but Mr. Montagu, we apprehend, is in an error when he supposes that it has not been identified by any author since the days of Linné; because Bosc mentions that he had found it, with the *Pelagicus*, in the course of his passage from France to America; and he distinctly notices the absence of the pectoral and anal fins.

The other species which Mr. Montagu has particularized are, *Cyclopterus Montagui*, *Ophidium imberbe*, and a doubtful specimen of *Blennius galerita*.

Elucidation respecting the Pinna ingens of Pennant's "British Zoology." By Captain J. Laskey, M.W.S.—It results from Captain Laskey's ocular inspection of the actual specimens, that the *Pinna ingens* of Pennant, *P. ingens* of Montagu, *P. lævis* of Donovan, *P. borealis* of Stewart, and *P. ingens* of the Linnéan Transactions, are one and the same species of shell.

Mineralogical Queries, proposed by Professor Jameson.—These queries relate chiefly to the kinds of formation to which particular mineral districts in Scotland, and a few in England, ought to be referred.

On the Transition Greenstone of Fassney. By James Ogilby, M.D.—Dr. Ogilby's verdict on the nature of this *debateable ground* seems to labour under a certain degree of obscurity: but we suspect that he alludes to the rock in question, when he pronounces it to be granular and aggregate, composed of reddish-white, or flesh-red felspar, greenish-black hornblend, and brownish-black mica. On account of the presence of the last mentioned ingredient, it might be supposed to differ both from *sienite* and *greenstone*:—'but a number of reasons (he says) here lead us to conclude, that the mica is an accidental or adventitious ingredient, similar to crystals of felspar in basalt, or garnets in mica slate, by which the general characters of these rocks, or their names, are not affected. A specimen taken at a little distance from the water favours the supposition; it approaches to common greenstone, by the felspar assuming a white colour, and the mica diminishing in quantity. The geognostic characters enable us to distinguish it sufficiently from sienite.'

That in one description of rocks mica is a constitutional, and that in another it is an accidental ingredient, may or may not be the case: but we profess our ignorance of the *numerous* reasons by which any such doctrine can be proved.

As Professor Playfair is engaged in the preparation of a new and enlarged edition of his Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory, we may expect that he will enter into some explanation of the composition of the Fassney rock.

Description of a Small-headed Narwal, cast ashore in Zetland. By the Rev. John Fleming, F. A. S. Minister of Bressay, Zetland.—The reverend author's account of this comparatively rare species is the most particular and satisfactory which we recollect to have perused. It appears, however, that his specimen had not attained to its full growth; and that, in various respects, it was more nearly related to the *Narwal microcéphale* of La Cépède, than to the common Sea-unicorn. From all the characters, indeed, which are here very distinctly stated, it is obvious that a new species should be added to the genus *Monodon;* and Mr. Fleming accordingly proposes the following arrangement:

1. 'MONODON *vulgaris.*—Common Narwal.

'Figure approaching to ovoid: the head equal to one-fourth of the whole length: a ridge extending from the tail to the blowhole: tail divided: lobes rounded.

2. 'MONODON *microcephalus*—Small-headed Narwal.

'Body of a conical shape: head blunt, and equal to one-tenth of the whole length: the ridge extending from the tail to the middle of the back: tail divided: lobes pointed.'

In his description of the Small-headed Narwal, La Cépède has carelessly confounded Boston in Lincolnshire with the town of the same name in North America.

On colouring Geognostical Maps. By Professor Jameson.—This perspicuous exposition of the Wernerian mode of delineating the mineral characters of districts is illustrated by appropriate symbols, and a coloured map.

Mineralogical Account of Papa Stour, one of the Zetland Islands. By the Rev. John Fleming, F. A. S. Minister of Bressay, Zetland.—The very miscellaneous nature of the rocks, which enter into the composition of this island, is truly astonishing; for they consist of sandstone, slate-clay, amygdaloid, greenstone, breccia, compact felspar, claystone, and porphyritic slaty felspar. By this last, is meant a rock which has for basis felspar of considerable hardness, containing imbedded crystals of felspar, and consequently constituting a porphyry; having, at the same time, the principal fracture slaty, and thus forming a porphyritic slate. 'All the rocks enumerated above are traversed by veins, filled with calc-spar, heavy spar, quartz, common jasper; and the amygdaloid contains veins of red hæmatite.' For the particulars of their arrangement and relations, we must refer to the paper itself.

Observations on some peculiarities observable in the Structure of the Gannet, Pelecanus Bassanus. And an Account of a new and curious Insect, discovered to inhabit the Cellular Membrane of that Bird. By George Montagu, Esq. F. L. S. and M. W. S.—This gentleman's contributions to our stock of natural science uniformly claim our attention, either by their novelty or by their ingenuity. Ornithological readers will peruse with pleasure the whole of his communication relative to the structure and habits of the Gannet: but their attention will be particularly attracted by the originality of his remarks on the pellucid air-cells which connect the skin with the body, and by his experiments on the inflation of the body itself.

'If a duck or a goose is attended to when the usual cry is emitted, it will be evident, that the pressure of the abdomen propels the air which is therein contained, with much force into the anterior part of the body, which, with what is there already not being able to escape through the trachea, not only inflates the cellular membrane about the breast to an unusual size, but, by compression, rushes with violence through the larynx, and produces a sound more or less intense, in proportion as the muscles are more or less exerted.'—

'Although this contrivance is so absolutely necessary to the existence of every species of bird, it is not immediately obvious for what particular purpose the property of inflation is so much further extended than usual in the gannet. We should not expect to find this power of inflating the skin, peculiar to those who obtain their subsistence by diving, because, in the act of immersion, such power could not be exerted without obstructing that operation; and it is obvious, that the air contained within the cavity of the body, is sufficient for all the ordinary purposes of seeking their prey under water.

'From what has been already observed, it will not be unreasonable to conclude, that the gannet is endowed with such singular properties, for very different purposes than that of long and continual immersion. It cannot be doubted, but such a power of inflation must contribute greatly to lessen the concussion in its rapid descent upon the water, in order to seize its prey: besides, as the enlargement of the surface, without materially adding to the specific gravity, must greatly contribute to its buoyancy both in air and water, it is well adapted for residing in the midst of the most tempestuous sea, floating on its surface in perfect security, and following those shoals of fish, on which depends its whole existence: thus, when all others are compelled to seek shelter in bays and creeks, the gannet is enabled to brave the severest weather in all seasons, without attempting to near the shore.

'This contrivance may also be of the most important service to an animal which is constantly exposed, even in the most inclement season, and cannot quit its station without starving: nothing could possibly conduce more to its security against intense cold, or be better adapted to preserve the necessary temperature of animal-heat, than this intermediate body of air between the skin and the body, since that element is found to be a non-conductor of heat. Upon this principle, what animal can be more securely protected against cold, or retain its vital heat so effectually as the gannet, or such birds as are almost surrounded with a body of confined air, divided by cells, and intersected by membranes between the skin and the body, and that skin so amply covered with a light porous substance, filled also with air, and impervious to water?'

The residence of a non-descript insect, in the cellular membrane of the skin of the Gannet, is a circumstance scarcely less surprising than the singular structure of that bird. As far as Mr. Montagu's observations extend, it is peculiar to the gannet, and does not appear to inhabit any other region than the cellular membrane. It seems (he says) to be 'more nearly allied to *Acarus* than to any other: but the want of eyes, proboscis, or sucker, and palpi, will not admit of connection; the situation, too, of the legs, seem [seems] to be characteristic. Under these circumstances, I propose giving it a distinct place in the system of nature, under the title of *Cellularia Bassani*, with the following generic characters: Head, thorax, and abdomen united: no eyes, antennæ, palpi, nor proboscis: legs eight, the four posterior remote from the four anterior: feet unarmed, but furnished with bristles.'

Account of a species of Fasciola which infests the Trachea of Poultry, with a mode of cure. By George Montagu, Esq. &c.— The disorder induced by this non-descript fasciola is commonly called *gapes*, because frequent gaping is one of the principal symptoms. Mr. Montagu adduces satisfactory reasons for supposing that it may be removed by mixing the barley or oatmeal, which is given to the affected chickens, with urine, instead of common water, and feeding them with the mixture three or four times in a day.

Some account of a Fin-Whale stranded near Alloa. By Patrick Neill, F. A. S. and Sec. W. S.—As the putrefactive process had already commenced its ravages on the specimen in question, before the author had an opportunity of examining it, his description is avowedly imperfect: but his observations and critical remarks are valuable, because the history of the cetaceous families still labours under darkness and perplexity.

A List of the rarer Plants observed in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh. By Robert Maughan, Esq. F. L. S.—The present catalogue contains an enumeration of such of the rarer species and varieties of indigenous plants, as have been observed within a day's excursion of the Scotish metropolis. Among them we remark *Valeriana dentata*, *Arundo colorata*, *Pulmonaria maritima*, *Polemonium cæruleum*, *Campanula glomerata*, *Beta maritima*, *Asparagus officinalis*, *Convallaria majalis*, *Paris quadrifolia*, *Sapon-*

aria officinalis, *Spiræa salicifolia*, *Glaucium luteum*, *Papaver cambricum*, *Coronopus Ruellii*, *Astragalus uralensis*, *Cymbidium corallorhizon*, *Asplenium marinum*, *Buxbaumia aphylla*, *Grimmia Dicksoni*, — *Doniana*, and — *alpicola*, *Dicranum rufescens*, and—*ovale*, *Neckera crispa*, *Hypnum alopecurum*,—*lutescens*, and —*palustre*, *Bryum dealbatum*,—*carneum*,—*bicolor*, and—*Zierii*, *Jungermannia polyanthos*, and—*purpurea*, *Lichen inclusus*, and—*paschalis*, and *Fucus ligulatus*, and—*rotundus*.

If our information be correct, *Lavatera arborea* has disappeared from Inch Garvie, but it retains its station in the much bolder exposure of the Bass Island. *Verbena officinalis*, though inserted by Lightfoot, on the authority of Parsons, has proved an object of fruitless search to many young botanists. It is by no means uncommon in many parts of England, but we are assured that it has not been recently observed in a wild state, in North Britain.

Mr. Maughan would have added to the obligations which he has conferred on the lovers of his favourite science, if he had specified the habitations with somewhat more precision, so that an amateur might more readily come in contact with the respective objects of his inquiries.

Meteorological Journals, kept during Voyages from Whitby to Greenland, and back again, on board the Ship Resolution, in the Years 1807, 1808, and 1809. By Mr. William Scoresby, jun. M. W. S. —These journals seem to have been noted with great accuracy. From that of 1807, it appears that 'the medium height of the barometer, in the month of May 1807, was 29.852; and between April 23, and June the 19th, 29.817, between the latitudes of 75° and $77\frac{1}{2}$° north. The medium height of Fahrenheit's thermometer, in May, being 23°, and for the above time, 25° 5'.' From the next series of observations, it results that, 'in the month of May 1808, between the latitudes of 76°, 17' and 78°, 36' north, the medium height of the barometer, observed always at noon, was 29.81 inches, and of Fahrenheit's thermometer $25\frac{2}{7}$°. The prevailing winds, during the whole season, in Greenland, were between the North and East quarters.'

Observations on the Natural and Medical History of the Zetland Sheep. By Arthur Edmondston, M. D., &c.—The substance of this essay has already appeared in the author's "View of the antient and present State of the Zetland Islands;" and his observations are now detailed in a more extended form.

In Zetland, the sheep, which seem to be of the same variety that occurs in Iceland and the Faroe Isles, are allowed to roam nearly in a state of wildness, and are subjected to scarcely any controul but that of dogs, which are trained to keep them off the scanty crops of corn. These sheep are never taken under shelter during the winter season, and, when the ground is covered with snow, no food is provided for them; so that they are constrained to have recourse to sea-weed. It is curious to 'observe with what precision they leave the hills, and betake themselves to the sea-side, at the moment the tide of ebb commences. This I can state to be an absolute fact, although I am utterly unable to explain by what process of sensation or of instinct it is effected. From remaining quiet on the hills, and endeavouring to browse on their summits, a whole flock is seen suddenly to run towards the sea-shore, and, on observing the state of the tide, it is found that the water has just begun to recede.'

Neither sheep nor cows are much celebrated for their sagacity; and yet we have been assured, on the most creditable testimony, that, in some parts of the north highlands of Scotland, herds of cattle have been observed to descend to the beach, as regularly as the tide begins to recede, although rising ground intercepted their view of the sea.

When threatened to be overwhelmed with snow, the Zetland sheep 'frequently assemble in considerable numbers on the side of a hill, and place themselves in such a manner [as] that their heads all incline towards the centre. By this arrangement their breath keeps them warm, and, dissolving part of their icy covering, forms a kind of vault above their heads. In this situation they have been known to remain for many days, during which they appear to maintain life by eating the wool off each other's backs.'

Dr. Edmonston's observations on the diseases incident to the sheep of the Zetland islands would incline us to suppose that they are neither more numerous, nor more inveterate, than those which assail the ovine race in favoured climates. In softness and fineness, their wool yields not to that of the Merino breed.

On the Mineralogy and local Scenery of certain Districts in the Highlands of Scotland. By Dr. Macknight.—The range of Dr. Macknight's observations comprises an extensive and *highly* interesting tract of the alpine country of North Britain, particularly that portion of its highland scenery of which the striking features have been celebrated in a recent poem of deserved popularity. From the airy and enchanting visions of "The Lady of the Lake," our delicately nervous readers will reluctantly descend to meditate on a 'peculiar species of Conglomerate,' which prevails in the hilly districts to the north of Callender, and is 'composed of rounded and angular fragments of quartz, mica-slate, clay-slate, green-stone, chlorite-slate, drawing-slate, and other substances, in masses of various sizes and forms, and agglutinated in a basis of clay which has a deep reddish colour from the iron it contains.' Such *solid* matters of fact, however, have their charms for those who are so constituted as to derive pleasure from a review of the works of nature as they really exist; and the present Reverend writer, though evidently a disciple of the Wernerian school, will not fatigue them with any unprofitable display of technical phraseology: his aim being rather to sketch the geological outlines of his landscapes, than minutely to enumerate and characterize their mineral contents; and, by the occasional introduction of sublime or picturesque imagery, to relieve the formality of scientific detail. As his remarks, however, extend to nearly a hundred pages, we can notice them only in this cursory manner; referring the curious to the paper for an account of Ben-Ledi, which rises to 3000 feet above the level of the sea, of the romantic scenery of Loch-Katterin, and particularly of Ben-Nevis, of which the mineralogical structure is here for the first time accurately characterized. As no unfavourable sample of the author's talents for description, we are tempted to extract the ensuing passage:

> 'The great Ben-More, which resembles a vast irregular pyramid, standing obliquely on its base, presents its most abrupt and precipitous front to the south-west. On this side, its upper regions, naked and bare, refuse accommodation to every inhabitant, except the eagle; and in ascending from the mountain-valley which divides it from Binean, the fatigue of clambering over its steep and broken rocks, which exhibit no variety, was relieved by little that could in-

magnificent in Scotland, perhaps in Britain; hardly inferior, in point of beauty, to those of Ben-Lomond, and Ben-Ledi, and in extent yielding only to that of Ben-Nevis. It reaches from the upper part of Inverness-shire, on the north, to Arran and Ireland, which may be faintly descried on the south; and from Mull on the west, to Lammer-muir on the south-east. There is, indeed, no point of equal elevation placed so nearly in the centre of Scotland. Remote from the lowlands, and from the arms of the sea, by which our coasts are so finely indented, the scene it presents is without the usual appendages of perfect landscape. But what it wants in beauty, is compensated by grandeur; and the absence of the river, the woodland, and the fertile plain, is forgotten, amidst the impressions arising from the vast expanse, in every direction, of alpine country, where the prominent features of ruggedness and sterility are relieved only at intervals, by the verdure of the cultivated glens, with their winding-streams, diminished by distance to the size of shining threads.

'In particular, the course of the Dochart which sweeps the base of Ben-More, and of which, from this elevation, more than twenty miles may be comprised in a single glance, presents a remarkable *coup d'oeil.* To complete the effect in this style of the picturesque, the immense sheets of water in Loch-Lubnaig, Loch-Earn, and Loch-Tay, gradually opening and retiring from sight, among the deep and bending hollows of the mountains, form an embellishment of the whole view, more easily conceived than described.

'Among the group of mountains which encircles the spectator in this panorama of the Highlands, by far the most striking and beautiful object is Cruachan, lying to the north-west; which springs aloft with singular elegance of outline, from the mass of hills in its vicinity, and which now seemed to project from the brilliant ground of the western sky, like a figure embossed on burnished gold. Few appearances in that kind of alpine landscape could have a more spirited or charming effect.

'With such an expanse of the great and delightful beneath the eye, contemplations of a higher kind could hardly fail to arise in the mind. If the ruins of temples, and the deserted scenes of antient magnificence, patriotism, or learning, have awakened the most interesting recollections, it cannot be unsuitable to the feelings of man, that the sight of impressively magnificent natural objects should lead him to reflect, with the sublimest sentiments of veneration, on the power and wisdom which gave them existence, and which preside over all the stupendous operations of nature.'

Account of North British Testacea. By J. Laskey, Esq.— Captain Laskey's diligence and zeal are most creditably attested by the addition of nearly fifty species to the British Fauna, and by positively ascertaining the claims of others which were doubtful to rank in the same list. Among the rarer species are mentioned *Chiton lævis*, *Lepas cornucopia*, *Mya nitens*, and —*ferruginosa*, *Solen fragilis*, *Tellina squalida*, —*carnaria*, —*striata*, —*polygona*, —*Laskeyi*, and —*similis*, *Cardium aculeatum*, —*discors*, —*rubrum*, —*exiguum*, —*fasciatum*, —

spatula, and—*lævigatum*, *Donax castanea*, and—*plebeia*, *Venus verrucosa*, —*orbiculata*,—*substriata*,—*ovata*,—*Scotica*,—*reflexa*, —*laminosa*,—*guineensis*,—*subrhomboidea*,—*aurea*,—*compressa*,—*cassina*,—*granulata*, and—*lactea*, *Chema-cor*, *Arca tenuis*, and—*rostrata*, *Pecten glaber*, and—*similis*, *Anomia cymbiformis*, *Nautilus linearis*, nine distinct species of *Bulla*, &c. &c. &c.—Captain L. has interspersed his valuable and curious catalogue with some excellent critical remarks; and he has illustrated it by a plate, which contains neat representations of the most remarkable novelties in British conchology.

Remarks on some parts of the Animal that was cast ashore on the Island of Stronsa, September 1808. By Dr. Barclay. (Accompanied by several Affidavits, relating to the Animal.) The imperfect remains of this wonderful non-descript, and the attestations which are annexed to Dr. Barclay's statement of the singular structure of its vertebræ, permit us not to doubt the existence of some such monster of the deep, measuring fifty-five feet in length, of the thickness of a middle-sized horse round the girth, with a mane of bristles, extending from the shoulders to the tail; with six swimming paws, placed like wings or feet, two spout-holes on each side of the neck; and, with the exception of the paws and mane, more resembling a huge snake than a fish. Dr. Barclay very successfully combats the opinion, which had been hazarded by Mr. Everard Home, concerning the analogy between the Stronsa animal and the *Squalus Maximus*, or *Basking Shark*. If the rude outline of the former, which accompanies this interesting like a small rock. Knowing there was no rock in that situation, I fixed my eyes on it close. Then I saw it elevated considerably above the level of the sea, and after a slow movement, distinctly perceived one of its eyes. Alarmed at the unusual appearance and magnitude of the animal, I steered so as to be at no great distance from the shore. When nearly in a line betwixt it and the shore, the monster directing its head (which still continued above water) towards us, plunged violently under water. Certain that he was in chace of us, we plied hard to get ashore. Just as we leaped out on a rock, taking a station as high as we conveniently could, we saw it coming rapidly under water towards the stern of our boat. When within a few yards of the boat, finding the water shallow, it raised its monstrous head above water, and, by a winding course, got, with apparent difficulty, clear of the creek where our boat lay, and where the monster seemed in danger of being imbayed. It continued to move off, with its head above water, and with the wind, for about half a mile, before we lost sight of it. — Its head was rather broad, of a form somewhat oval. Its neck somewhat smaller. Its shoulders, if I can so term them, considerably broader, and thence it tapered towards the tail, which last it kept pretty low in the water, so that a view of it could not be taken so distinctly as I wished. It had no fin that I could perceive, and seemed to me to move progressively by undulation up and down. Its length I believed to be from 70 to 80 feet. When nearest to me, it did not raise its head wholly above water, so that the neck being under water, I could perceive no shining filaments thereon, if it had any. Its progressive motion under water I took to be rapid, from the shortness of the time it took to come up to the boat. When the head was above water, its motion was not near so quick; and when the head was most elevated, it appeared evidently to take a view of distant objects.

'About the time I saw it, it was seen about the island of Canna. The crews of thirteen fishing-boats, I am told, were so much terrified at its appearance, that they in a body fled from it to the nearest creek for safety. On the passage from Rum to Canna, the crew of one boat saw it coming towards them, with the wind, and its head high above water. One of the crew pronounced its head as large as a little boat, and each of its eyes as large as a plate. The men were much terrified, but the monster offered them no molestation. — From those who saw it, I could get no interesting particulars additional to those above-mentioned. 'I remain, Sir, &c.

'Donald Maclean.'

On the Topaz of Scotland. By Professor Jameson.—According to the Professor, precious beryll, amethyst, precious garnet, and topaz, are the only true gems which have been hitherto discovered in North Britain; and the Scotish topaz was long mistaken for a variety of sapphire, till its characters were of late fully exhibited in a series of crystals, of remarkable size, brought from the upper part of Aberdeenshire to Edinburgh. They are of a greenish-white hue, and slightly opalescent.

escent. The largest entire crystal 'weighs 7 ounces 3 pennyweights 18 grains Troy; and a fragment of a crystal from the same tract of country, now in the possession of Mr. Farquharson of Invercauld, weighs 1 pound 3 ounces 8 drachms and 8 grains Troy weight.'—'Another topaz has been found near Invercauld in Aberdeenshire. Its weight, as communicated to me by Colonel Imrie, is 3420 grains, or 7 ounces 2 penny weights and 12 grains; its specific gravity 3.56. It is said, that a distinct crystal, heavier than the preceding one, has been found in the same county, and is now in the possession of a gentleman in Aberdeen.'

The nature of the repository of these topazes has not, it should seem, been ascertained: but the learned and ingenious author of this paper conjectures, and on very plausible grounds, that they may occur in drusy cavities, or veins, in granite, and in considerable quantity.

Some Remarks upon the Pudding or Conglomerate Rock, which stretches along the whole of the South Front of the Grampian Mountains in Scotland, from where they commence in the West, to where they finish their course towards the East in the German Ocean. By Lieutenant-Colonel Imrie.—The extent, and the occasional vertical position, of the accumulations of Conglomerate, which Colonel Imrie has observed along the chain of the Grampian mountains, are remarkable geological phænomena: but the composition of these masses is perhaps still more singular; for they consist of rounded and water-worn granites, gneiss, porphyries, jaspers, horn-blend, horn-stone, and quartz, from the troductory remarks refer to a former paper, on the same subject, which was laid before the Society, and returned for revisal, but which we are led to expect will appear in the second volume of these transactions. In the meantime, he seems to have established the important fact that rocks of the character designated in the title not only occupy extensive tracts of country, but are distributed in East Lothian in a series perfectly analogous to that at the Scheibenberg, on which the Wernerian theory of aqueous deposition is particularly founded. The mineral species described in this part of the essay are, Greenstone, Jasper, Quartz, and Heavy and Calcareous Spar.

The jasper occurs in numerous veins, in rocks intermediate between claystone and porphyry-slate, and is often of a dusky yellow colour, with various shades of brown-red, and sometimes black. From the series of specimens which the Doctor has collected, its transition to flint, quartz, chalcedony, and to splintery quartz, approaching to horn-stone, may be distinctly traced. Some specimens, on the other hand, indicate a passage into a dull earthy substance, verging on compact clay-stone.

On the Coal-formation of Clackmananshire. By R. Bald, Civil Engineer, Alloa. — The geological features of the coal-field, which are here delineated, seem not to differ essentially from those of others which are situated in alluvial soil: but the discovery and registration of the principal phænomena, which accompany every workable *depôt* of our national fuel, are objects of primary importance; and the writer of this paper, we have every reason to believe, has exhibited a series of very accurate data within the sphere of his professional range of observation. His interpretation of the *provincial* by corresponding *scientific* terms should be imitated by all who engage in similar useful undertakings.

On the Gaseous Combinations of Hydrogen and Carbon. By Thomas Thomson, M. D. — This ingenious and indefatigable chemist ascribes almost all the varieties in the combustible gases, obtained from animal and vegetable substances, to two causes; namely, the empyreumatic oil which they hold in solution, and the quantity of carbonic oxyd which results from the presence of water and carbon. So variable are the operations of these causes, according to the quantity of oil dissolved, or of oxyd formed, that the subject can derive no distinct elucidation from any review of gases formed from charcoal, or from animal and vegetable substances. The experiments of Cruickshanks, Dalton, Henry, and Berthollet, combined with arguments deduced from analogy, powerfully plead in favour of the common opinion that a gas exists composed simply of hydrogen and carbon, in consequence of the former being capable of dissolving the latter. This doctrine is illustrated by Dr. Thomson's experiments and calculations relative to the carbureted hydrogen gas of marshes, and that which the associated Dutch chemists and others denominate the *olefiant* gas: — but the particulars do not admit of abridgment.

A List of Fishes found in the Frith of Forth, and Rivers and Lakes near Edinburgh, with remarks. By P. Neill, F.A.S. and Sec. W. S. — A local catalogue of fishes, which avowedly includes only those species that have fallen under the writer's personal observation, in the course of a very few years, may serve as the ground-work of a more complete enumeration, but as a record is scarcely intitled to formal publication. We owe it, however, to Mr. Neill's critical acuteness, to state that his occasional annotations are well worthy of attentive perusal. As an exemplification of this remark, we transcribe his comment on *Callionymus lyra*:

‘C. *Lyra*. Dragonet; *Chanticleer*, or *Gowdie*.

‘Mr. Pennant and other authors describe *two* species of Callionymus as natives of our seas; — the Gemmeous Dragonet, *C. Lyra*; and the Sordid Dragonet, *C. Dracunculus*. They bear a considerable resemblance to each other; the Gemmeous Dragonet being distinguished chiefly by the great length of the first ray of the dorsal fin, by being somewhat superior in size, and by the brilliancy of its colours. Mr. Stewart remarks, that “it is not certain but the Sordid Dragonet is a mere variety of the Gemmeous[*].” Dr. Shaw says, that “C. Dracunculus is so nearly allied to C. Lyra, that it may perhaps be doubted whether it may not be in reality the same animal in a less advanced state[†].” Mr. Donovan, however, in his elegant, and generally accurate work, on British fishes, considers them as “certainly distinct[‡].” Professor Gmelin seems to have been the first to suspect that the difference might depend on the sex of the animal; and, in adopting from Pennant the *Callionymus Dracunculus* into his edition of the “Systema Naturæ,” he subjoins a query, “An solo sexu a Lyra diversus?” To this, I think, I am able to answer in the affirmative. Although the Dragonet is mentioned by English authors as being a rare fish on their coasts, it is rather common near the mouth of the Frith of Forth. Both sorts are there found, in water from 12 to 20 fathoms deep. They are often caught on the haddock lines, which are baited with muscles: they are, however, seldom brought ashore, the fishermen despising them. Having, some summers ago, expressed a wish to the New-haven fishermen, that they would procure for me a few *gowdies* (as they call them), I soon found myself overstocked with specimens. In the course of dissecting and preserving some of each, it struck me as remarkable, that the

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[*] ‘ “Elements of Natural History,” vol. ii. p. 325.’

[†] ‘ “General Zoology,” vol. iv. part i. p. 117.’

[‡] ‘ “Natural History of British Fishes,” vol. iv. plate 48.’

gemmeous dragonets were all males, and the sordid dra
females. I now considered it as a fortunate circumstance,
bers were brought to me,—presuming that if I should find
meous dragonets to be uniformly *milters*, and the sordid drag
be uniformly *spawners*, I might be permitted to conclude t
are only male and female of one and the same species. I acco
opened every specimen which I received, to the amount o
dozens; and the result entirely supported that opinion. Bot
were brought to me nearly in equal numbers; and from the
men I learned, that they were taken promiscuously on the same
The *Callionymus Dracunculus* falls therefore to be dropped
species; but it seems unnecessary to change the specific name
which happily enough alludes to the lengthened first ray of the d
fin *of the male* which is bent in shape of a lyre.'

It has hitherto been very confidently asserted that the *Ga*
brosme, or *Torsk*, is never found farther south than the coast
Caithness: but Mr. Neill informs us that it has been caugh
though very rarely, in the mouth of the Frith of Forth, an
brought to the Edinburgh market.

In opposition to two prevailing notions concerning the food of the herring, and its uniform rejection of bait, Mr. Neill mentions that he found, in the stomach and œsophagus of a large female herring, five young herrings, those which were lowest being partially dissolved, and the others entire; and that individuals of this species have been known not only to bite at an artificial fly, but to be taken by limpet bait.

Catalogue of Animals, of the class Vermes, found in the Frith of Forth, and other parts of Scotland. By Professor Jameson. — Most of the species included in the Professor's list were observed on the shore about Leith, or in the Orkney and Zetland islands. Among some of the rarer sorts, are *Doris argo, Mammaria mammella, Lineus longissimus, Nereis mollis, Chiton ruber, Echinus cidaris*, and—*placenta, Gorgonia flabellum, Tubularia ramosa, Sertularia avicularia*, and *Coryna squamata.*

List of Insects found in the Neighbourhood of Edinburgh. By Mr. C. Stewart, M. W. S. — The acknowleged meagreness of this article, in respect of numbers, is unredeemed by any indication of the spots on which the rare species may be found, or by any valuable remarks of a physiological or economical complexion.

Account of the Balæna Mysticetus, or Great Northern or Greenland Whale. By Mr. W. Scoresby, jun. M. W. S. — If Mr. Scoresby's description be correct, (and we are by no means disposed to question either his opportunities or his capability of observation,) it follows that the common whale differs, in several respects, and especially in the form of its head, from those representations of it which every naturalist has, with undeviating fidelity, copied from another. The zoological student, who is desirous of obtaining accurate notions on this subject, may compare the present account and plate with those of Dr. Shaw. Even a summary statement of the points of difference would carry us beyond our prescribed limits.

Summary of Experiments and Observations on the Germination of the Gramineæ. By John Yule, M. D. &c. Every admirer of the vegetable economy will be gratified with Dr. Yule's modest statement of his own observations: but a recapitulation of them, without the accompanying plate, would prove at once irksome and unsatisfactory. We shall, therefore, be contented to announce, first, that, in consequence of investigating the substance which is situated between the base of the first seminal bulb and the *scutellum* of gramineous seeds, the Doctor has traced its analogy to the tuberous substance which is interposed between the bulbs and the roots of the liliaceous and other monocotyledonous tribes. 'This substance Linnæus considered as part of the root of these plants; from which, however, it differs essentially, being in reality an organ destined to contain an indefinite number of embryo plants, a greater or less number of which are subsequently evolved by the joint agency of the roots and leaves.'—Secondly, in the viviparous grasses, the author has traced the origin of the reproducing buds, 'which shoot from succulent tubera like those of the stem, terminating the peduncle within the calycine valves. In short, the *Proper Receptacles* of these plants, not only as in ordinary circumstances, produce the parts of fructification, but when these are, through the influence of climate, rendered abortive, supply their place by an indefinite number of buds or bulbs, in the same manner as the tubera of the stem, with which the receptacles of these plants have the closest analogy.'

Account of the Coal-formation at Durham. By Thomas Mackenzie, Esq. — The coal-field here described presents nothing that is very particularly deserving of attention; except, perhaps, the small portions of galena which sometimes occur in veins of an argillaceous basis, that traverse the strata and beds.

Meteorological Observations on a Greenland Voyage, in the Ship Resolution, in the Year 1810. By Mr. William Scoresby, jun. —These observations, which commence from the 9th of April, and terminate with the 27th of June, are reduced into a tabular form, exhibiting a register of dates, latitude, longitude, degrees of the thermometer and barometer, direction and strength of the winds, &c. and the modifications of the clouds, agreeably to the idea suggested in Mr. Howard's essay.

Analysis of Compact Felspar from Pentland Hills. By Charles Mackenzie, M. D.—It appears from Dr. M.'s observations that compact felspar occurs so abundantly in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, as to form almost the whole mass of several hills. In composition, it nearly coincides with the *petunzé* of the Chinese: but it is unfortunately contaminated with nearly 1½ per cent. of iron, which renders it unfit for the manufacture of the finer kinds of poreclain. The constituents obtained were,

Silica,	71.17
Alumina,	13.60
Lime,	0.40
Iron	1.40
Manganese	0.10
Potash	3.59
Volatile Matter	3.50
	93.36

'In several of the lateral valleys in the Pentland range, there occurs a greyish and yellowish-white coloured *claystone*, which agrees in many of its characters with compact felspar. This mineral should be analysed, as there is a probability of its containing the same constituent parts as felspar, with the exception of the iron; and if so, it would answer for the finest kinds of porcelain.'

From the foregoing notices, which are unavoidably much circumscribed, our readers will be at no loss to perceive that the contents of the present volume are, generally, as important as they are various; and that the proceedings of the Wernerian Society augur many beneficial results not only to the interests of our native country, but to those of natural science.

Art. VII. *An Account of the past and present State of the Isle of Man;* including a Topographical Description; a Sketch of its Mineralogy; an Outline of its Laws, with the Privileges enjoyed by Strangers; and a History of the Island. By George Woods. 8vo. pp. 358. 10s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin. 1811.

In a preface to this volume, Mr. Woods informs his readers that he was induced to submit the present details to the public, in consequence of the total want of a satisfactory book on the subject. Recent circumstances have rendered antiquated the accounts of the Isle of Man by Feltham and Robertson, and their deficiencies have been poorly supplied by the late production of Mr. Nathaniel Jefferys. None of these writers have attempted to give a topographical description of the island, with an outline of its laws, nor to touch on the subject of mineralogy; all of which Mr. Woods has endeavoured to combine in the present publication. No person, who is desirous of information respecting the condition of this singular island, stone unhewn. Some of the latter kind, in Douglas, let as high as 40l. per annum. Sash lines and weights, even to sash windows, are rarely to be seen, the people still continuing the barbarous method of supporting the sash at one invariable height by an iron catch. The farm-houses and offices of this island are generally small, irregular, and ill constructed. Some modern ones are upon a better plan; and some few estates are well supplied with offices and barns. A common custom, and one every way bad, is to have the barn over the cow-house. Open stables are still too much in use. The farm-houses, and, indeed, most of the cottages are built of unhewn stone; the former with a mortar, the latter with a mud, cement: the former with a roof of slate, the latter with one of straw. The meaner cottages are constructed of sods of earth, and resemble those of North Wales, consisting usually of two rooms on the ground, sometimes with, sometimes without, a solitary window.'—

'Sheep are fed chiefly on the up-lands. The ancient stock is very small and hardy, much like the south-down of England, and endures the severest weather. When fat, their usual weight is from five to eight pounds per quarter. Their meat is excellent. This is still the breed upon the uplands and mountains; but in the low lands a larger sort has been introduced. Two pounds and a half is the average weight of the fleeces of the small sheep, and six or seven pounds of the large ones. It is not of the finest or longest staple.'—'Sheep, in this country, are subject to a peculiar and fatal disease, called by the natives *Ouw*, supposed to be owing to the eating of the hydrocotyle vulgaris, marsh pennywort. Its leaf is said to corrode the liver; and, on opening a sheep that has died of the disease, to be found attached thereto, transformed into an animal, having apparent life and motion, but retaining its primitive vegetable shape.'—

'The country is sufficiently populous for the extent of cultivated ground; but, the herring-fishery engaging the attention of so many men and small farmers during the summer or autumnal months, is a great check to agriculture, and renders labour scarce. Another bad effect of it is, that it teaches habits of so much irregularity and idleness; that the people employed in it never become good labourers, and are, generally speaking, a very lazy and drunken class. The custom is greatly felt by those who have much corn to reap or grass to cut: the getting in of the harvest is very tedious, for want of sufficient hands; and it is often much injured by the weather. I have known hay cut for many weeks before the farmer could get it carried, and sometimes not stacked before the end of September. The women, unaccustomed to the irregular lives of the men, partake not of their indolent disposition. Four-fifths of the farming business fall to their share. They are reckoned very expert in reaping and in digging potatoes, and perform not amiss many other parts of husbandry. A mower cuts in a day about three quarters of an acre of grass; and five female reapers, with one to bind, cut an acre of corn. The practice is to cut the corn as close to the ground as possible.'—'The price of labour is continually increasing. Men get, during the harvest, one shilling per day, and women, ten-pence, besides provisions: and the quantity of work effected is very inferior to that of the opposite shores. A ploughman expects from eight to ten guineas a-year, and a boy three. Some of the experienced Scotch labourers have been procured at double wages, and found a great acquisition to the farmers. The labouring class of people live upon butter-milk, potatoes, barley-cakes, stir-about, and herrings. The barley-meal is kneaded with a very little water, and rolled to the thickness of one-sixth of an inch. It is then baked upon a plate of iron over a peat fire, and usually has a stronger flavour of smoke than of barley. Oatmeal is occasionally, but not very often, substituted. Leavened bread is little known and little liked. Stir-about, well known in Ireland, is composed of oatmeal and water boiled: this is their common breakfast: herrings are a frequent part of their dinner, salted, not dried: and their last meal is either stir-about, or potatoes and milk. A labourer usually has a piece of potatoe ground, and sometimes a cow.'—

'Markets for provisions are ordered to be held at each of the four towns; but only at Douglas are they regular. Fairs for the sale of horses, cattle, and wearing apparel, the manufacture of the island, and for the hiring of servants, are numerous; and about six are very well attended. There is no market or fair for grain, and those likely to want any generally make a contract with the farmers as soon as the harvest is got in. Two modes of agricultural improvement have been long proposed. The first is the establishment of a Manks Agricultural Society; now, in some degree, carried into effect by the extension of the Cumberland Society to this island, which will not, I fear, prove of much advantage to the inhabitants. The other is, a conversion of the tithe, now payable in kind, into an unalterable sum of money, equal to its present value. To these two may be added a third, that of lengthening the term of leases.'

After this clear and circumstantial account of the agriculture of the island, a chapter is appropriated to its manufactures. The exemption from excise-laws, and the convenience, by the command of water, of erecting mills, have appeared to some persons to present considerable inducements for the establishment of manufactures: but the duration of the former of these advantages is uncertain, and the latter is more than outweighed by the manifold drawbacks which attend a rude condition of society. If we consider also the power of government to impose heavy duties on the importation of articles from the Isle of Man to the other parts of the British dominions, we may safely pronounce it unadvisable to erect any manufactories, except those which are intended for the consumption of the island. Accordingly, the efforts made with this view have been inconsiderable, and are confined to maintaining among the inhabitants the benefit resulting from the absence of customs and excise duties. Malting and brewing being uncontrouled, ale and beer are made for leſs than half their price in England. The consumption of spirits is also

considerable, the taste of the inhabitants in this respect affording no exemplification of the philosophical rule that plenty creates indifference.

On the subject of exports and imports, Mr. Woods has extracted (p. 63, 64.) a part of an official document which records a variety of specific articles. The general result is, that a constant import of manufactured goods prevails, chiefly from Liverpool; of coal, from Liverpool and Whitehaven; of wine, from Oporto and Guernsey; of brandy and Hollands, from the latter place; and of rum, from England. These various articles constitute an amount greatly beyond that of the exports; and the balance is no doubt made up, as Mr. Woods remarks, by the drafts on the main land of those who, to avoid the sight of a bailiff, or the extravagance of English living, take up their temporary or permanent abode in this sanctuary. Until the year 1765, the epoch of the transfer of the sovereignty of the island from the Athol family to Government, the great business of the inhabitants was smuggling. The place was a store-house, from which foreign goods were poured, as occasion offered, into England, Ireland, and Scotland; and an annual loss was caused to the revenue, of fully 200,000l.: — but, since the regulations which followed the change of sovereignty, the contraband trade has been nearly annihilated.

The herring-fishery forming the most important branch of industry in the island, Mr. Woods is induced to enter on the natural history of that fish, and of its yearly progress from north to south. He adopts the recently received opinion that its winter-habitation is less advanced towards the arctic circle, and nearer to the northern shore of our island, than it was formerly believed to be; an opinion which is confirmed by the slow progress of this and other kinds of fish in accomplishing a change of residence. The Manks fleet employed in the herring-fishery consists of four or five hundred boats, of about sixteen tons each. The season is from July to September, and the fishing takes place during night; a capture of between ten and twenty thousand herrings being reckoned a good night's work for a vessel. A boat's crew generally consists of six persons, and the fruit of their labour is divided into nine shares, one for each man on board, two for the owner of the boat, and one for the owner of the nets. Of the men employed in fishing, about two-thirds are generally landsmen, who are in the habit of quitting their inland habitation for the sea-ports during the autumnal months. They leave their wives to reap, to thresh, and to dig potatoes; and having reserved a considerable number of herrings for the year's consumption, they feast and get intoxicated with the produce of the remainder. The number of herrings annually cured in this fishery is subject to great variation: but the average is probably from eight to ten millions. The price of fresh herrings fluctuates from 12s. 6d. to 20s. per maze of thirty score.

The military establishment of the island consists of a regiment of fencibles, recruited by voluntary enlistment. Their pay is the same as that of English regiments; the service is easy; and vacancies are readily filled up by the bounty of three guineas to a recruit. — Of the deficiency of Manks education, some notion may be formed by Mr. Woods's acknowlegement that he knows not of a single native who has been or is eminent in learning, or in the arts. Yet, rude as is their country and their institutions, the attachment of the people to a separate government was as great as if they had been a large and powerful nation; and the sale of the sovereignty in 1765 was felt as a severe blow to their pride. Their language is naturally Gaelic, and many of the country-people do not understand a word of English. It follows from this description that a material difference must exist between the natives and the strangers who resort here in great numbers, for the two reasons already mentioned; the first, that the island is privileged by law from all debts not contracted there; the second, that a family may live there, especially in the country, and more particularly in the northern part, at a very small expence. Of the cost of housekeeping, the subsequent passage will afford an idea :

'In the north of England and some parts of Ireland, many provisions are cheaper than they are here; but for wines, spirits, salt, eggs, and some other articles, Man has greatly the preference. The chief advantage, however, and a very great one too, which this island possesses, is, that no tax-gatherers dun the ears of the inhabitant.'

We suspect, however, that recent mercantile misfortunes have added considerably to the population of the island, and have tended to raise the price of provisions. The transmission of letters to England takes place weekly by packet to Whitehaven. The packet-boat arrives at and sails from Douglas, which is by much the largest town in the island, though Castletown is the capital.

That part of the present book, in which the author has permitted himself to enter most into minutiæ, is the account of a tour through the island. A portion of this is taken from the labours of that indefatigable antiquary, Grose: but several matters are introduced (such as the account of apparitions, p. 128. et seq.) which we must condemn as totally unworthy of notice in a serious publication. Indeed, the objection of prolixity applies to the whole volume; and it would have been no difficult matter for Mr. Woods to have conveyed the most valuable part of his information in half the compass. In his attempt to give a history of the government, we should have been satisfied if, without going back to the days of the Druids and of St. Patrick, he had been contented to record only the most memorable events; such, for example, as that the act of Parliament under Henry VIII., which vested *all* monasteries and abbey-lands in the crown, was the first instance of the interference of the English legislature in the affairs of the island. The tribunal, composed of twenty-four members, called Keys, is termed in the island (Mr. Woods informs us) a parliament, and is intitled to the name from the legislative functions which they exercise; bills usually originating with them, and their consent being always necessary to the passing of a law: but as far as the mode of election is regarded, their claim to denominate themselves the representatives of the people is still less than that of their brethren on the main land; their appointment proceeding, not from an appeal to their fellow-citizens, but from the choice of their own body. The chief exercise of their power is judicial, an appeal lying to them from the inferior courts, and their decision admitting of no revisal, except by the King in Council. Their situation confers honour but no emolument; and though it is for life, they have always possessed the confidence of the people. Two chief justices are appointed in the island, called Deemsters; one for the northern and the other for the southern division. The

Governor of the Isle of Man holds his office from the crown; he is chancellor *ex officio*, and hears appeals either by himself or his deputy. A council of five persons also is established, who fill the chief civil and ecclesiastical offices.

In regard to taxes, the inhabitants of the Isle of Man, though very differently circumstanced from their fellow-subjects, are not in the enjoyment of complete exemption. They are liable to the burden of tithes; they pay duty on brandy and Hollands, at the rate of three shillings per gallon; on rum two shillings; from twelve to sixteen pounds per ton on foreign wine; fourpence per pound on coffee; and sixpence on tea. The inhabitants, however, enjoy the satisfaction that taxes are imposed only for their own internal purposes, and that they are not called to contribute to expences which are foreign to their feelings and welfare. At the time of transfer in 1765, the island-revenue was between 5 and 6000l., but in 1804 it was computed to have risen to 16,000l.

In a quarter so often sought for the preservation of personal freedom, that department of the law which is technically called *the rights of persons* becomes an important subject of consideration. The differences in the eye of the law between natives and strangers are few and inconsiderable. A person who is prosecuted for a debt that was contracted out of the island can be held to bail only for his personal appearance, and for the forth-coming of such goods as he may have on the island: but his money cannot be touched; and even goods may be protected by vesting them in the name of another person. These privileges would be productive of the grossest abuse, were it not a rule receive annually from the consolidated fund a sum equal to one-fourth of the gross revenue of the island. Mr. Woods leaves us at no loss to conclude that his opinion is unfavourable to the right of the Athol family to this second concession.—He closes his book by a history of the island, in which (as before) we must complain that he aims at going too far back, and dwells too long on circumstances of insignificant import. Though satisfied in many points with his labours, we cannot take leave of him without regretting that he should have expanded into an octavo volume those materials which might have been advantageously compressed into a modest duodecimo; and that in his style he should have a predilection for some quaint expressions, or rather collocations.

ART. VIII. *Views of Military Reform.* The Second Edition, corrected, and considerably enlarged. By Edward Sterling, Esq. formerly Captain in the 16th Regiment of Foot. 8vo. pp. 168. Egerton. 1811.

IN the introductory chapter of this pamphlet, the author refers to Captain Pasley's "Essay on the Military Policy of Great Britain," which we reported at some length in our last Number, and which Captain Sterling says has produced 'a considerable sensation, and roused the attention of reflecting men to objects of transcendant interest and value.' After the account which we have given of that publication, we need hardly add that we think it can excite no emotion in the breast of a man of sound sense or rational military ideas, but that of astonishment at the chimerical wildness of the writer's proposed war-crusades and continental conquests: yet Captain S. seems in some measure to have imbibed that author's notions of offensive warfare, although he allows the exposition of his vast and momentous projects to be somewhat tinged with enthusiasm. In speaking of the 'true principle of military institutions,' it is here remarked:

'Some encouragement to emulous pride, and to generous ambition, is a debt long due by this country to the profession of arms. It is of the essence of municipal law, that *punishment* should be its only sanction. Its rewards consist in the peace and security which it offers, and though of inestimable value, they may be called rather negative than express. But in laying the foundations of a military power, far different are the views by which we ought to be animated, and far nobler the spirit which it becomes us to inspire. That inert submission, which measures the duty of the tranquil citizen, and which corresponds with a system of repose, is of too low a strain to harmonize with a system of action. Restless enterprize and impetuous ardour are the living principles of a warlike body. To set up the Mutiny Bill as the rule of sentiment to a soldier, would be fatally abject and degrading. He whose feelings are reducible to such a standard, can hardly be expected to reach the attributes of a hero; as the eye, whose field of vision is bounded by a penal clause, will never dilate itself to the prospect of fame and immortality. Personal distinction, the prize of eminent exploits, is an effectual instrument in the hands of a military legislator. Unlike the operation of municipal law, his policy ought to act upon the mind of man by hope rather than by terror; rewards with him, therefore, ought to be positive, conspicuous, and expressive; his punishments, if it were practicable, ought indeed to be negative — consisting only in the absence of reward.'

Captain S. is an enemy to the use of the lash, and indulges the hope that Lord Palmerston's bill may lead to the abolition of that practice. Of the regulations introduced by the late Mr. Windham for abridging the obligations of service, &c. he speaks in the highest terms of approbation; and he strongly recommends the better education of soldiers.

In Chapter I. the author considers a subject on which much has been said in and out of Parliament, namely, the recruiting of the army. He observes that, as the regular recruiting for some years past has scarcely equalled half the supply of men who are annually wanted for keeping up our army at its present establishment, (particularly if we persevere in the war of the Peninsula,) we must in a short time either have recourse to the ballot, or to the milder plan pointed out by him in the seventh chapter of this Essay.

We cannot by any means subscribe to his unqualified assertion, that we must either continue to prosecute the war in Spain and Portugal, or perish. Dreary and hopeless indeed must be our prospect, if our existence depends on expelling the French completely from that Peninsula, and confining their operations to the other side of the Pyrenees. We think that we need not, as we have elsewhere observed, be afraid of losing our naval superiority, of our being subdued by France, nor of making a peace with Bonaparte to-morrow, if we give due encouragement to our fisheries, adopt proper measures for conciliating the affections of our colonists, and throw the East India trade immediately open to all His Majesty's subjects. This is not a time for monopolies, when our commerce, by its exclusion from the Continent of Europe, is in danger of perishing.

The second chapter treats on the education of officers, and the preparation of them for the service; and important subjects they certainly are. On the first, Mr. S. thus expresses his sentiments:

> 'There can be little hesitation in asserting, that every candidate for the profession of arms ought to make himself an accomplished

gentleman, no less than a scientific soldier; and that the studies connected with such a view of the subject will be various rather than severe. Drawing, and the modern languages, with the principles and practice of field fortification, are all too obvious to be overlooked. Military geography might be rendered subservient to history, which, ancient and modern, ought to be diligently taught; for "if you would form great minds, you must hold up to them great examples." To these should be added a general knowledge of the statistical accounts of all modern nations; comprehending a survey of their productions and manufactures, their population, commerce, revenues, and system of taxation; a concise view of their form of government — of the mode in which they raise their armies — of the degree of facility with which they recruit them — and of the amount, the discipline, and character of the troops. An officer furnished with this stock of information, will find himself able to walk alone, in whatever part of the world his duty may engage him — being exempt from the risk of deception or disappointment, whether in relation to the resources on which he may have to depend, the privations he must endure, the allies with whom he is to co-operate, or the enemy whom he has to encounter. Nor can it be deemed superfluous, to recommend to each student, such a liberal acquaintance with the Latin language as may fix in his memory the glowing records of Sallust, of Cæsar, and of Tacitus; or fill his yet untainted imagination with the loftier poetry of the Augustan æra — strains, immortal as the warriors whom they sung! that his earliest sentiments may breathe of magnanimity, and his first sympathies be given to heroic virtue.

'If we reflect again on the arduous situation of the commander of an army, when employed upon actual service, or allow for the difficulties not rarely encountered even by subordinate officers, in the conduct of detached and distant commands, it may appear desirable to add one subject more to those already recited. I am far from urging, as an essential part of a military education, any abstruse researches into what is called the law of nations, or that the hours and the spirits of youth should be wasted amidst the labyrinths of Grotius, Puffendorf, and Vattel — but, on the Continent of Europe where, sooner or later, the British bayonet will be seen again to shine, we may, at once, suppose a case in which the interests of his Majesty might be eminently promoted by an officer, who could blend, on the spur of a critical occasion, the statesman with the soldier — who, by a prompt and spirited assertion, or by an equally prompt and temperate admission of those leading principles, which govern the rights of neutral and belligerent powers, might secure a paramount sanction to his enterprizes, and an unerring guide to his negociations. It is quite needless to dwell upon the advantages that have accrued to our most inveterate enemy, from possessing a long list of able officers, capable of executing, at times, those confidential missions, which embrace a sort of mingled character — where the forms of diplomatic discussion are only called in, to screen or to facilitate the exercise of military vigilance, upon objects which require the correctness of a veteran judgment, and the fidelity of a soldier's eye.'

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We perfectly agree with Capt. St
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government-maps or plans of some counties in this kingdom, made from surveys which have been for a number of years advancing as slowly as they have been expensive to the public; and in which, from a deficiency of classical knowlege, no notice has been taken of such striking and remarkable features on the face of the country, as the remains of large antient camps and intrenchments. Such maps can never be regarded as military, nor as usefully subservient to military purposes.

As classical knowlege, then, must be deemed a necessary ingredient in the education of an officer, our readers will be surprised on being told that it forms no part of the instruction given at the Royal Academy at Woolwich,—the oldest military seminary in this kingdom, — though many of the gentlemen-cadets remain there for several years. A person, therefore, may act in the capacity of lieutenant-governor in that establishment, or director of studies in it, without the benefit of a liberal education; provided that he can dabble a little in algebra, that he possesses a common-place knowlege of geometry, with a smattering of French, and that he understands drawing sufficiently to judge whether a plan or section be correctly made and properly coloured.

In the last page of this chapter, Mr. Sterling expresses some ideas in a style which is more suited to the flights of imagination, than to the sober dictates of sound sense and reason. We can by no means adopt his opinion that the successes and conquests of France, since the Revolution, have been chiefly owing to her military schools; because such establishments and institutions were as much the objects of attention under her monarchy as they have been since the destruction of it; and it is well known that her officers in general were then better informed in several respects than they are at this moment. The extension of her territories has been owing to other causes. The Revolution, and the external pressure which she experienced from the formation of coalitions for her dismemberment, excited a new spirit among a people naturally enterprising and ardent; and the enthusiasm and zeal thus occasioned have, by a concurrence of circumstances favourable to their views and flattering to their vanity, been kept alive to this time.

Chapter III. relates to the admission of officers into the service. Here the author pursues the same subject of their education, in detail; giving a sketch of a novel institution for educating military men, and speaking at the same time of the appointment of officers, and the sale of commissions. He is an avowed enemy to the practice of purchasing in the army, and on that head proposes the following regulations:

'1st. Every purchase, of any rank whatever, shall be *henceforward* null and void.

those officers, who were then to have
their willingness to remain in the army,
precluded from any further sale of their
' 5thly. Let every officer, who, at t
shall have been in the service for twent
his highest regimental rank to the public
life, without limitation, and for the pr
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be called the " Order of St. George,
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In treating of the defensive force of
most eligible form and best materia
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enemy, the author considers with so
system, pointing out its inherent def
consequences to the regular army.

In the VIth chapter, Captain S. e
system, and points out its weakness,
substitution, the oppression of the bal
present extent of the militia service
expence of it compared with its ut
mistaken discipline. He observes tha
weak to answer the purposes for whi
that since, as a militia permanently
rendered sufficiently numerous, we

The substance of his objections to our old-militia system is thus briefly expressed:

'1. That the old militia ought to be largely reinforced, if they are to be entrusted with the protection of this country.

'2. That they cannot, at the same time, be sufficiently augmented, on the present system of keeping the whole of them in constant pay, because the nation could not endure either the hardship of so extensive a ballot, or the burthen of so enormous an expenditure.

'3. That the permission granted to individual defaulters under the ballot, to purchase substitutes at an indefinite price, seems blindly, nay, studiously, calculated, to paralize the recruiting of the regular army; to corrupt every serjeant into a crimp, and each victim of artifice into a deserter.

'4. That the plan of maintaining a perpetual militia, composed of the same identical persons, from the beginning to the end of a long war, and of requiring from regiments so composed a service coextensive with the limits of the island, is in truth so severe an imposition, as to render the duties of the militia service hardly less unpopular than those of the line itself, in the eyes of the industrious, whose trades and callings are thus irrevocably sacrificed; and for whose maintenance, on their final discharge, no provision whatever has been made.

'5. That the same cause, combined with the sort of discipline which has hitherto been inculcated, appears to be pregnant with other, and still more pressing evils; inasmuch as force of very limited amount is all that can be thereby kept on foot; such force is not conversant with the operations most applicable to a close and embarrassed country; and the bulk of the people are retained in utter ignorance of arms.'

In the last chapter, the author takes a view of our present local-militia-establishment, and points out its defects; considering it as a radical evil in this system, that the men, after having been drilled for the short period of twenty days, do not re-assemble again for almost twelve months: at the expiration of which time they meet in nearly the same condition as to military knowlege in which they were at first, having forgotten the little which they had learned. The cure of this evil is one of the principal elements of the plan recommended by him for adoption. He accordingly proposes to abolish the present system of the old militia; and, taking their average effective strength at 50,000 men, to engraft on them a new militia of 200,000, agreeably to the following plan:

'1. From and after a given day, let every battalion, or corps of the old militia, be subdivided into four parts, or classes, distinguished by the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4. These may serve as the skeletons of new battalions, in round numbers about 360, having about ninety of such skeleton battalions comprehended under each general class.

origin, progress, and effects, both past and probable, of its introduction into the British army, through the medium of the school established in the First Regiment of Foot, under the patronage of His Royal Highness the Duke of Kent; and here a just tribute of praise is paid to the Duke of Kent, for his disinterested motives in introducing and his laudable zeal in patronizing so useful a system of instruction. A second paper contains observations relative to the employment of the British army on foreign service, with the proper scenes and the legitimate objects of their operations. In this memoir, the author enters into a sort of discussion of the policy of expeditions, and endeavours to enforce the three following propositions:

> '1st. While England is at war, and threatened with invasion by an enemy, who encircles nearly two thirds of her coast, she ought not to confide in her navy alone, but ought to strain every sinew to create an efficient army, *and therefore, without any more immediate motive, she ought to seek all opportunities of fighting her antagonist abroad, in order to prepare her troops for the final struggle, on ground more critical and decisive.*'—
>
> '2dly. If it should be granted that the prospect of inuring the British army to war will fairly justify the employment of it on foreign service, this policy derives much additional weight, when we are enabled to combine, with such a general object, the *specific hope of relieving a distressed neighbour, on the brink of subjection to a common enemy, and of forming with that neighbour, on the basis of congenial interest, a permanent aud powerful alliance.*'—
>
> '3dly. I now proceed to the third position which I had in view at starting — viz. That, although it may be quite essential to have soldiers disciplined in war, and although it be an imperious duty to protect our struggling friends, by the same means which contribute to the amelioration of our own armies; yet since it would be wise to obtain for the consumption of men and money, some more solid indemnity than mere discipline — and since it would be much wiser to augment our own strength, than to rely implicitly on any foreign friendship — *the most valuable of all objects to be attained by the application of the British arms, would be the conquest of some territory now in the hands or under the avowed controul of France, and the permanent annexation of it to the British empire.*'

These propositions are the natural consequence of the author's having imbibed, to a certain degree, Captain Pasley's Quixotic notions about our making conquests on the continent of Europe, and dismembering the French empire. We have not room and leisure now to enter into an examination of them; and we will only observe that both these gentlemen seem to have assumed an erroneous datum from which they reason, namely, that the number of expert seamen which a country can produce is in proportion to its population. Now it is evident that an inland continental country never can furnish a tenth part of the number of real sailors in proportion to its population, which can be supplied by an insular state; and ships without seamen avail little or nothing for the purposes of invasion or conquest. A considerable part of the French empire, having no immediate communication with the sea, is better adapted for agriculture than commerce; and we may safely conclude that these writers are equally mistaken in regard to their apprehensions and their calculations.

A third paper in the Appendix contains a statistical account of the population of the Austrian monarchy, and the composition of its army.

In conclusion, we certainly must allow that Captain Sterling writes like a scholar and a man of a liberal education; and that his language is generally good, though in some places too much inflated.

Art. IX. *Observations on Ophthalmia, and its Consequences.* By C. Farrell, M.D. Surgeon to His Majesty's Forces. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Murray. 1811.

It is scarcely necessary for us to remark that the disease, which forms the subject of this treatise, is that violent inflammatory affection of the eyes which was first observed in the English army during the campaign in Egypt, which has since existed in the different military stations bordering on the Mediterranean, and which has occurred even in our own island. Several works have already appeared respecting it; and in general it may be asserted that its symptoms are accurately ascertained, and the method of treatment well understood. Under these circumstances, we may fairly question the propriety of multiplying publications on the subject, especially such as do not profess to throw any new light on it. This, according to the author's own confession, is the case with the work now before us; and yet he has what he conceives to be a just ground for engaging a share of the public attention:

> 'Though I do not lay claim to originality, (he observes) still I hope it will not be deemed presumption in me to say, that I hope to render this little work worthy of notice, by presenting in it some illustration of the causes of ophthalmia in our army, and by endeavouring to establish a division of the disease into the varieties which it seems naturally to present, and to institute a method of cure adapted to each variety.'

We must acknowlege that the author's means of information have been extensive: he first saw the disease in Egypt itself in the year 1807; and during the three subsequent years, he was stationed in Sicily, where he had ample opportunity of observing it in every variety of form and degree. We may, therefore, have the satisfaction of supposing that the statements of Dr. Farrell are deduced from an extensive acquaintance with facts; and that the directions which he gives for the treatment are derived from ample experience of their efficacy. As, however, he rests the merits of his work chiefly on the new arrangement of the different varieties of the disease, which he attempts to establish, it is necessary for us to examine this point with some attention; and to endeavour to form a just estimate of the supposed value of the improvement.

The species into which Dr. F. divides ophthalmia are three; these do not, as he informs us, depend on the part of the eye which is affected, but on the violence and character of the symptoms; and he farther states that he has formed his classification more for the purpose of ascertaining

> 'A fixed and precise mode of treatment for each variety, than of attempting any radical distinctions as to the forms of the disease, or of following it through its transitions from one state to another. Three species of ophthalmia, viz. two of an acute inflammatory type, and one of a chronic nature, may then be pointed out according to this view of the subject. But the two first, though resembling one another in the leading feature of acute inflammation, still present such difference in the number and violence of their symptoms, run such different courses, and require *so* different modes of treatment, that it will be necessary to consider them under separate heads. In conformity to this plan, then, one species of the acute kind may be denominated *ophthalmia mitis*, or the mild ophthalmia, and the other, *ophthalmia gravis*, or the virulent ophthalmia. The chronic species, though it is difficult to ascertain, with precision, the point at which it begins, and though it presents some variety in its appearance, is still sufficiently well marked in its aspect to admit of being described under one denomination.'

Respecting the first two of these varieties, we do not perceive that they differ from each other except in degree; and although in this, as in every other case, a wide difference must necessarily exist between the two extremes of the scale, we cannot discover any mark by which a line of discrimination may be drawn between them. We, therefore, cannot agree with the author in the propriety of separating them from each other, because we think that such a separation, where no essential difference exists, can be of no use in practice. When the ophthalmia assumes its most acute state, it would appear to constitute a highly inflammatory disease, which requires for its removal the most decided antiphlogistic treatment: yet this treatment is not to be adopted without consideration, but in every instance to be pursued to that extent which the symptoms require. It is not in one case to be pushed to the utmost, and in the other to be entirely disregarded, because the one case is just severe enough to be placed among the *graves*, and the other just comes within the limits of the *mites*. — With regard to the third species or variety, the chronic, we do not perceive that it materially varies from that kind of ophthalmia to which this denomination is usually applied: but sufficient grounds appear to exist for giving it a distinct appellation, since it differs essentially from the acute disease in its cause and symptoms, and requires an essentially different treatment.

From what has been stated, our readers will perceive that we are not disposed to assign much credit to that feature of this publication on which the author rests its principal merit; and yet we would not entirely reject the work as possessing no claim to our attention. It appears to be the result of actual observation, and must therefore be considered as an additional document in proof of the existence of a series of facts, which are immediately important as to their effect on our practice; and which are also interesting, from the new views which they present of the nature of contagion, and its influence on the animal economy.

ART. X. *Sur la Banque de France*, &c. *i.e.* On the Bank of France, the Causes of its critical State in 1806, the bad Effects of that Crisis, and the Means of preventing its Recurrence; with an Inquiry into the Principles of Banking: — being a Report made to the Chamber of Commerce in Paris, by a Special Commission. 8vo. Printed at Paris in 1806; and reprinted by Hatchard. London, 1811. Price 3s.

AFTER having travelled through a large mass of crude performances, to which the Report of the Bullion-Committee has given rise, — having turned over page after page, in a kind of endless succession, and rarely finding an idea deserving to be recorded with approbation, — it is a pleasure to meet with a perspicuous and original work which reviewers alone are qualified to appreciate. The author of the Report before us is M. Dupont de Némours, well known as a member of the French Legislature, during the few years in which it was allowed that body to hope that liberty was about to take up her abode among them. The reputation acquired in his former days will not be lessened by this his later production; and fortunate would it be for France, as well as for her neighbours, if men of the patient research and calm consideration, which mark the author of this Report, were admitted to a larger portion of influence in the deliberations of governments.

The Bank of France is an establishment on a plan very similar to that of the Bank of England before 1797, but on a smaller scale. Its original capital was two millions sterling; the amount of its notes in circulation is nearly four millions; its dividend has always exceeded five per cent. per annum; and its stock, in course, has borne a premium. Like our Bank, it discounts the acceptances of government and individuals at a term of sixty days, and makes and receives payments on account of government as a bank of deposit: but its notes are not a legal tender. On acceptances of short-date, viz. sixty days or less, the rate of discount in Paris is only five per cent.: but on those of long date, whether in the case of government or in that of individuals, the discount, like that on our navy-bills in 1795, is at the rate of ten, fifteen, and even twenty per cent. M. Dupont, being determined to carry his readers to the fountain-head, begins by explaining how necessary credit is to the operations of commerce, and what a quantity of capital is saved by the substitution of paper for specie; that is, by a general consent to take a promise to pay instead of the actual payment. It deserves remark that this foreigner was aware in 1806 (see p. 33.) of the existence of a discount on Bank of England-notes, to the extent of four per cent.; a fact which was clearly established by a correspondent rise in the price of bullion, but of the truth of which many persons among us, and some even of the Bank-Directors, remain unconscious. The injury done by governments to their own interest, when they interfere with the management of banks, is well explained in this pamphlet (p. 46.); and it is shewn (p. 60.) that the benefits accruing to the public from the freedom of banks, viz. the reduction of the rate of interest, the enhancement of land, and the increased facility of all commercial transactions, are advantages of too substantial a character to be lightly exposed to hazard. — In reading M. Dupont's account of the mercantile distresses in Paris, which were consequent on the fall of bank-notes, we were almost led to imagine that we were perusing an exposition of the state of London since the beginning of the great failures in the last summer. Bankruptcies among the poorer traders, a general reduction of purchases, dismission of workmen, an almost total suspension of some branches of manufacture, and a loss on the capital employed in carrying on others, are points of affecting resemblance between the two metropolitan cities.

It appears by a narrative into which M. Dupont enters, that the Caisse d'Escompte had been exposed in the course of twenty years to four alarms, or moments of temporary suspension: which occurred in 1783, 1787, 1798, and 1802, but were far inferior in their duration and consequences to the unfortunate stoppage of the Bank of France in 1806. The original causes of this suspension were to be found in the over-issue of notes, which followed its undertaking to act for government in the payment of the dividends; hence arose a daily drain of cash to the extent of 10 or 20,000*l.* sterling, and a necessity for collecting and bringing up money from the country to Paris. The money, however, being wanted in the country, returned thither through other channels; and this gave rise to a pernicious action and re-action, to a considerable expence, and to the incessant conveyance of specie in sums which were lost for the time to the purpose of circulation. Hence money became scarce, and credit received a shock.—Another source of evil was caused by those anticipations of revenue, which the French government has been perpetually under the necessity of making. The *fournisseurs*, or contractors for stores, had lately undertaken to supply the wants of the public treasury in this way, charging discount in the ratio of only six per cent. annually, but taking very good care to indemnify themselves in the price of their stores, for a rate of interest which in France is accounted extremely moderate for securities of long date. The excess of the securities deposited, above the amount advanced, afforded to the contractors a guarantee for their supplies to government, which was so far a recommendation of the measure: but their want of money led unavoidably to increased applications to the Bank. In the midst of all this, the continental war of 1805 broke out; which obliged the government to call on the Bank for additional supplies, in return for long-dated securities. The Bank had no option: the advance was indispensable; hence a fresh addition to their issues, and a fresh drain of specie when the excess was brought back, as is always the case, for payment. The amount of paper in circulation, though not larger than in former years, was too large for a season of distrust; and the Bank, finding it impracticable to sell the government-securities, was obliged to suspend payment, and to seek the means of reducing its issues by a stoppage of mercantile discounts, to the extreme annoyance of persons in trade. The whole was, therefore, like Bonaparte's measures in general, a sacrifice of the interest of individuals to that of the executive power. By way of preventing a total stagnation, the merchants of Paris agreed to take the bank-notes as currently as before, though subject by this time to a discount of nearly ten per cent. The exchange from the country-towns on the capital gave evidence, by its fall, of the existence of depreciation. On the successful termination of the campaign, application was made to Bonaparte to aid the Bank by making their notes a legal tender: but the recollection of assignats was too fresh in the minds of Frenchmen; and the Bank found no alternative but to narrow their issues, and buy up bullion. A perseverance in this system eventually produced a remedy for the evil, and restored cash-payments. At the commencement of the run on them, their paper in circulation amounted to about 3,600,000l. sterling; and, after the suspension, depreciation continued to exist till they resumed cash-payments, and reduced their issue to 2,200,000l. This severe remedy, of reduction of circulation, M. Dupont recommends (p. 67.) on the occurrence of every shock to credit, as the only certain preventive of greater calamity.

This tract is marked throughout by judicious ideas, conveyed in clear and concise language. Willingly would we enter on an analysis of the author's opinions on the subject of banking generally, as well as of his detail of the circumstances which are peculiar to the French establishments: but discussions on banks and bullion have already occupied an undue proportion of our pages; and we find it necessary to refer those among our readers, who are desirous of knowing more of M. Dupont's views, to the work itself, which by its republication here is fortunately within their reach.

ART. XI. *Essays on the Sources of the Pleasures received from Literary Compositions.* 8vo. pp. 378. 8s. Boards. Johnson and Co.

No kind of metaphysical disquisition is more interesting, nor better calculated to improve the taste, than that in which the present volume is engaged. To those observers of human nature, who are well acquainted with the close connection between moral purity and intellectual excellence, it is unnecessary to suggest the strong tendency of any improvement in the taste to ameliorate the dispositions of the heart. This reflection is enough to recommend an inquiry into the sources of our literary pleasures; — an inquiry which, on the one hand, is free from the dryness of mere elementary speculations in metaphysics, and, on the other, is safe from the presumption and scepticism which are too often engendered by pursuing the objects of abstracted contemplation beyond its proper sphere.

The essays before us treat on the following subjects: 1. On the Improvement of Taste. 2. On the Imagination, and on the Association of Ideas. 3. On the Sublime. 4. On Terror. 5. On Pity. 6. On Melancholy. 7. On the Tender Affections. 8. On Beauty. 9. On the Ludicrous. We design to present our readers with such extracts from various parts of the volume, as we conceive are most worthy of attention; interspersing them with some reflections of our own.

After a few general remarks on the subject of the first essay, and a tribute of praise to a writer whose labours in this department of literature have lately acquired additional and deserved popularity*, the author proceeds to descant on a theme which cannot be too frequently suggested to our thoughts.

> ‘ Taste cannot be completely refined without great sensibility in the moral feelings. It is by this sensibility alone, that we rise superior to the allurements of those authors who prostitute their talents to enslave us to the ignoble passions. It is by this sensibility alone, that we are awakened to the most exalted pleasures; all that flow from the contemplation of the sublimer virtues; all that flow from sympathy with the endearing “ charities” of our nature; all that flow from the raptures of devotion, and the hopes of futurity. He who does not feel as a good man feels, will be a stranger to the highest delights of eloquence and poetry.
>
> ‘ Upon the whole, then, our taste will be improved, according as our moral sensibility and intellectual faculties are improved; according as our knowledge is extensive; according as we have become acquainted with first-rate compositions; according as we are disposed and accustomed to connect agreeable trains of thought with proper objects; according as we have learned to counteract unfavourable associations; and according as we have been trained to direct our full attention to the more affecting circumstances, and to apprehend them completely and distinctly, even when they are too complicated or too delicate for common observers.’

The second essay contains some useful and amusing observ-

and illustrating the casual hints of the former,) towards ascertaining the extraordinary mechanism of associated ideas in the brain of man. That the connection between our thoughts is in part necessary, and independent of our will, no philosopher, however reasonably jealous of any attack on human liberty, has been sanguine enough to deny. Is it not, then, an object of the highest importance to learn how we may best enable ourselves to strengthen that controul, which we naturally possess over our waking thoughts to *a certain degree*, and on which so materially depends the right direction of our minds? Yet how can we learn this most useful of all arts, without experimentally knowing the dangerous power of that principle which we are desirous of restraining and rightly guiding? Who has not felt the correctness, as well as the poetical grace, in the following picture of the train of our ideas?

"Awake but one, and lo! what myriads rise—
Each stamps its image as the other flies."

How great, then, must be the superiority of that man's imagination who, from his youth upwards, has filled it with the purest and noblest materials of thinking; who has made it the channel of no polluted streams; and who has not narrowed it by any mounds of prejudice and ignorance! Such a man has turned the arbitrary union between certain classes of ideas to the best sort of freedom,—the freedom from idle, vicious, and degrading thoughts. Every fact which we can collect, and every just observation which we can build on that fact, relative to this most interesting law of our nature, must be of the highest service to our endeavours at obtaining the worthiest object of a rational being, an increased command over our own minds;—if they can be called our own, until we have at least established such an empire in the largest part of the territory. How much must still continue *sui juris*, and beyond the possible reach of our dominion, it is not for man to discover. His love of power, however, that darling appetite of his nature, will then be most worthily gratified when, comparatively speaking, he has acquired the fullest government of his thoughts; for on his thoughts, primarily, depend his passions; although, by the dangerous re-action of the heart on the understanding, his passions will too often re-excite their parent-thoughts. Our limits will not allow us even to attempt to do justice to this subject, and the claims of the Essayist are imperious on us:

'Our last observation on the present subject' (he says) 'is this: that both the vivacity and the nature of the emotion produced by any object depend on the particular train of thought which it excites.

cites. Let us suppose, for instance, two different persons viewing a beautiful and extensive vernal prospect. Let us likewise suppose, that from their particular habits, they are led by this view to different reflections: that one of them looks forward only to the wealth, which will arise to the possessors from the good crops, and the rents which the proprietors ought to receive for fields so well enclosed, and in such excellent condition; while the other is awakened to the affecting and exalted contemplations which we find in Buchanan's ode, the Calendæ Majæ; the beauty and happiness of the creation at the return of spring, the perpetual spring which reigned in the primeval ages before the degeneracy of man, the future restoration of nature to it's original glory, and the felicity of the virtuous in that better state. It is evident, that the one of these observers will not be sensible of the sublime emotions, which the very same view has kindled in the other. And we can easily see, that the imagination of an object, if attended with the proper train of thought, may affect us in a particular way far more powerfully than it's actual presence would have done, if our thoughts had been turned into a different channel.

"These observations on the vivacity of the emotions produced by the imagination suggest the general principles, which a composer ought to keep in view for exciting and regulating its influence according to his particular purpose.

'He ought, in the first place, to be extremely careful in selecting and bringing forward the circumstances which are conducive to his purpose, and concealing as much as may be those which are unfavourable, or even superfluous.'

After having developed his ideas on the justness of this critical rule, the writer proceeds to offer another canon of equal importance:

'The author is also to remember, in the second place, that a great impression is not to be expected, unless he be careful to prepare the reader.'—'He must employ all his skill to direct our attention to such a train of thoughts, and to awaken such emotions, as may best dispose us for the impression to be made.'—'Every one, who has witnessed the representation of Venice Preserved, may recollect a circumstance, which shows how much may be done by a proper preparation. I allude to the sudden alarm, which seizes the audience in the parting scene between Jaffier and Belvidera, when the bell gives the first toll for the execution of the conspirators. The effect of the bell would have been little or nothing, if it had been heard before this affecting interview begins. It is from the trembling sensibility to which we are previously subdued, that the signal for the execution shakes us to the very heart.'

The third general principle which this critic suggests is, 'that wherever it may be supposed that the reader is sufficiently roused to gather from hints enough to form a picture to himself; there it will be advisable, only to set his imagination to work by means of such hints as may lead him to the proper view of the subject.'

It must obviously be doing some injustice to the clearness and the force of the author's precepts for composition, thus to detach them from their context; and it must greatly lessen the liveliness of their effect, to omit the illustrations (whether from poetry or other branches of the belles lettres,) with which they are very pleasingly accompanied: but we wished to select some examples of his soundness of judgment, in the advice which he gives to the candidate for literary fame; advice, in our opinion, that is founded (in much the greater number of instances) on a thorough acquaintance with those mental and moral perceptions which must be excited in the reader, if we would please a correct taste. We shall now endeavour to attract such a reader to the volume before us, by presenting him with some passages of a more popular and striking description.

The different theories of the Sublime are well discussed by the author. The account given by Longinus is rather that of the effects than of the causes of this much examined sensation; and it is not only vague, but, as the writer well observes, excludes the objects which cause our veneration; objects universally regarded as sublime: for such objects do not produce " a certain proud elevation" of mind, (as Longinus describes it,) but, on the contrary, an emotion which tends to humble and to soothe us. Lord Kames, and Dr. Gerard, who have placed the Sublime in Magnitude, and Mr. Burke, who has narrowed it into Terror, are here, in our judgment, properly censured. *If any one quality* is to be selected as the essential characteristic of the true sublime, (although we strongly object to this unphilosophical fondness,—we say *un*philosophical fondness,—for attempting to simplify the sources of our pleasures, and to reduce every metaphysical dissertation to a mathematical smartness and precision, which is *in fact* unattainable,) that quality appears to us to be Extraordinary Power. This is the theory of Blair, and is adopted by the present author. — " Mighty force, or power," says the former, " whether accompanied by terror, or not; whether employed in alarming or protecting us, has a better title than any thing that has been mentioned, to be the fundamental quality of the Sublime." Having corroborated by argument and illustrated by example the foregoing opinion, and assigned some nice but judicious distinctions and limitations to its practical application, the Essayist continues:

' The theory also accounts for an observation, which, although it be inconsistent with Mr. Burke's notions, will yet be generally acknowledged. When we look down from the top of a precipice, it appears more dreadful, but less sublime, than when we stand below and look upwards. In this latter case, the height of the object is greatly magnified by optical deception; but moreover we are strongly impressed with the idea of the mighty power, which reared so enormous a mass to such a height, still more than with the idea of the vast force with which it threatens to fall. In the former case we are chiefly struck with the imagination of our inevitable and dreadful destruction, if by any accident we slipped from our station, a destruction which does not involve any idea of power. The difference between the two cases is strongly marked in Mr. Jefferson's description of the famous natural bridge of rocks in Virginia, quoted by the Marquis de Chastellux in his Travels in North America. The height of the bridge is 270 feet, according to some measurements, but according to others only 205. The fissure is about 45 feet wide at the bottom, and 90 at the top. The bridge is about 60 feet in the middle, but more at the ends. "Though the sides of the bridge," says Mr. Jefferson, "are provided in some parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have resolution to walk to them and look over into the abyss. You involuntarily fall on your hands and feet, creep to the parapet, and look over it. Looking down from this height about a minute gave me a violent head-ache. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in the extreme. It is impossible for the emotions arising from the sublime to be felt beyond what they are here, on the sight of so beautiful an arch, so elevated, so light, springing up as it were to Heaven. The rapture of the spectator is really indescribable."

We must make one brief extract more from this interesting essay, and proceed to the others:

'Again; what shall we say of another source of the sublime mentioned by Mr. Burke, and very different from any thing which has yet been considered? namely, the absence, or privation, as he calls it, of any of the qualities by which external objects manifest themselves to our senses of seeing, hearing, or feeling? Under this description are comprehended darkness, silence, vacuity, and solitude. These privations I apprehend to be rather sources of terrour, although they often are united to the sublime, and heighten it's effect. And they will also become sublime in themselves, when we consider them as produced by mighty power, or when by any association they suggest that idea. Of this we have a striking instance in the history, ascribed to Mr. Burke, of the European settlements in America. In the destruction of Callao by the great earthquake, it is said that only one man survived; who reported, "that the sea retired to a great distance, and returned in a vast wave; *the cry of miserere was heard in the streets, and in a moment all was silent* [*]."

The essay on Terror is very well worked up; and the illustrations, from some celebrated paintings, of the author's theory, 'that the objects of terror ought to be placed in obscurity to produce their full effect,' are highly amusing and instructive.

'[*] This man was a sentry on guard, and escaped by leaping into a boat which the wave was carrying past him.'

instructive. We can only add a word on this subject; — namely, that we wish our theatrical critics and machinists would attend to the author's remarks on the witches in Macbeth, and on stage-ghosts; — whose *bodily* substance is indeed most offensive to the spectator.

The essay on Pity might have been thrown into that upon Melancholy. Although we would not encourage the spirit of simplification in metaphysics, yet we must beware of an unscientific multiplication of passions and feelings, which have a likeness strongly arguing (if we may so express ourselves) identity of essence; although, *as a likeness*, in course implying some shade of difference in operation. We do not mean, as it is hardly necessary to mention, that the social feeling of pity ought to have been confounded with the selfish emotion of melancholy: but that, considered as sources of pleasure in literary composition, they produce an effect so similar as to justify their examination under the same head. We shall select an interesting passage from the first of these essays, and must conclude our extracts with two still more pleasing quotations from the second.

The author having presented us with instances of the "sadly soothing" delight excited by passages which Pity (and we may add which Melancholy) marks for her own, — passages which Homer, Virgil, Otway, &c. &c. have rendered so enchanting by a charm which they only could excite, and those only who are worthy to read them can enjoy, — thus guards against a too dangerous indulgence in the perusal of such dissolving narrations, and at the same time allows them their proper effect:

'It is indeed to be feared, that the employment of much time in the perusal of pathetic compositions may, in certain respects, be hurtful to the character. For this frequent but indolent repetition of the sensations of pity in so high a degree, may impair greatly our natural sensibility, while at the same time there is no call on our exertions for the relief of the sufferer, to confirm the habit of active benevolence. And farther; the elegant and engaging representations, to which our imagination is thus accustomed, may create an inattention and aversion to the more homely scenes of real calamity. Mr. Stewart is, I believe, the first author, who has stated these important observations, which he has illustrated with great ability and eloquence, in his Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind.

'But while we allow, that bad effects may result from the too constant perusal and absurd application of such compositions, yet it cannot be denied, that pathetic writers have a favourable opportunity of making impressions highly advantageous to the character. Of these the following are the principal: to warn us of the miseries produced by ungoverned passions, even when the passions themselves, as love or ambition, indicate virtuous dispositions; and even when their very excess engages, in no small degree, our attachment or respect: to warn us of the calamities, and even crimes, in which we may be involved by imprudence, levity, or the slighter deviations from rectitude: to prepare us for the evils of life, which often rise from unavoidable causes, and often from the faults of others, as well as our own: to raise our thoughts to a better world: to cherish humanity, by directing our attention to the sufferings of our fellow-creatures: and thus, also, to promote our thankfulness under the blessings, and our patience and contentment under the hardships, of our own situation. But it is to be observed, that in the compositions, which we are now considering, these important lessons are to be enforced, not by moral discussions, but by the display of characters, and the incidents of the story: in a word, by example, which teaches more powerfully, as well as more agreeably, than precept. And such is the respect for virtue in every human heart, that the useful tendency of a pathetic work will add a new attraction to it's other charms.’

The same sensible discrimination between the reasonable use and the injudicious excess of any of our enjoyments, and the same general application of Macduff's natural assertion of his *right* to suffer, are observable in the following passage:

‘However poor the blessings of this world may be, when compared with what we are invited to look for hereafter; however foolish it may be to triumph, as if we could insure their possession; and whatever may be the price, which, every thing considered, we ought reasonably to give for them: still they have a certain intrinsic value, sufficient to make their loss very sensibly felt even by the wisest and best of men; a value, of which we are not only most sensible, but which we are even extremely apt to over-rate, when we reflect for how short a time at the longest we shall be permitted to enjoy them. We survey with renewed admiration the beauties of nature, as they seem to be retiring from our view. We look with redoubled affection on our companions, to whom we are soon to bid a long farewell. “Prepare the feast,” said Lord Randolph;

“Free is his heart, who for his country fights.
He on the eve of battle may resign
Himself to social pleasure, *sweetest then,*
When danger to a soldier's soul endears
The human joy that never may return.”

‘The celebrated painter le Poussin understood this way of interesting the heart. In a picture of Arcadian festivity, he represents a tomb with this simple but affecting inscription, *Et in Arcadia ego*; “I too was an Arcadian.” The effect of this object, combined with the gayety of the rest of the scene, is beautifully described in the following verses from the *Jardins* of de Lille. The poet is advising the improvers of ground to enliven their scenes by contrast; and says,

‘Imitez le Poussin. Aux fêtes bocagères
Il nous peint des bergers et de jeunes bergères,

Les bras entrelacés dansant sous des ormeaux,
Et pres d'eux une tombe où sont écrits ces mots:
Et moi, je fus aussi pasteur dans l'Arcadie.
Ce tableau des plaisirs, du néant de la vie,
Semble dire: "Mortels, hâtez vous de jouir;
"Jeux, danses et bergers, tout va s'évanouir."
Et dans l'ame attendrie, à la vive allégresse
Succède par degrès une douce tristesse.'

The author pursues this train of thought with admirable feeling, and introduces a translation from Horace (Ode vii. Book 4.) which, as it is printed without the name of its translator, and as this omission is contrary to the essayist's uniform practice, we conclude to be his own. We dislike the metre, because we perceive a pertness, and an abrupt effect in the concluding line of the stanza, according to our apprehension: but, in point of poetical expression, the author (if this composition be from his pen) has shewn that he can exemplify his own precepts:

"*Diffugere nives,*" &c.

'The cheerless glare of snow is past,
And rising verdure smiles around;
The spreading trees rejoice at last
With foliage crown'd.

'Again the Earth renews her youth,
More sweetly shines the genial sky,
And purest streams, whose murmurs sooth,
Flow gently by.

'The nymphs and graces o'er the mead
Can venture now in light attire,
To join the frolic dance, or lead
The warbling choir.

'Yet joys immortal are not here;
'Tis but the season's transient bloom.
We too shall fade: the changeful year
Forbodes our doom.

'Now yields the cold to Zephyr's reign;
The lovely spring will also fly,
And summer burn the russet plain,
But soon to die.

'When Autumn, to poor mortals kind,
Strews with his annual fruits the ground;
When dreary Winter close behind
Completes the round.

'Yet still the circling moons pursue
The rapid course, which late they ran,
The youth of nature to renew;
But, hapless man!

'When we shall lie, as soon we must,
Where all the good and great are laid,
Our glory turns to mould'ring dust
And empty shade.

'Who knows how soon the gods decree,
To close the joys that now invite?
To day is ours; but shall we see
To morrow's light?'

The succeeding essays are of equal merit, generally speaking, with those which we have mentioned. That which relates to the 'Tender Affections' should be read by every female in the kingdom. Indeed, we trust that the popular and engaging manner, in which this author has treated all his subjects, will introduce "the *metaphysics of poetry*" at least to the toilets of the fair. Need we say, that we mean not the Cowleian *poetry of metaphysics?* We wish, however, that the study in question had a less revolting name: "the thing *we* call a rose would smell as sweet by any other name:" but if neither the author's art nor our praise can recommend the other parts of this work, an essay 'on Beauty' surely must claim attention. We may add that it is the *least metaphysical* (we mean in point of success) of any in the volume, and may therefore better please general readers. The concluding theory and practice of the 'Ludicrous' has dismissed us in very good humour with an anonymous writer who must soon be *unearthed.*

last twenty years; in which he dwells largely on the effect of deficient harvests in turning the exchange against us. In this, as in his first pamphlet, he ascribes, perhaps, too much to our situation in regard to corn, and too little to the burdensome operation of our subsidies. Notwithstanding all his anxiety to enumerate the commercial causes of the fall of our exchange, Mr. Wilson omits that which is the most potent in our eyes, the stoppage of the American continental trade. We differ from him likewise in another point: he is unwilling to admit that even the rise of gold to 4l. per oz. in 1800, a rise which has ever since continued, implies a depreciation of our paper-currency; and he accounts for the permanency of the advance of gold by the circumstance of the exchange never having risen since that date, sufficiently to defray the expence of importing quantities of gold into this country.

Mr. Wilson's field of observation is chiefly in Scotland, and he makes the following computation of the rise of rent and price of labour in that country since the year 1790:

After the scarce years, and high prices of the years,

	Rent.	Labour per Week.
1795 and 1796, a rise of nearly	45l. per cent.;	from 7s. to 9s.
1800 and 1801, - - - - -	25l. - - - - - -	9s. to 10s.
Since the corn-bill of 1804, -	30l. - - - - - -	10s. to 12s.

Computed in all 100l. per cent.

Such computations are necessarily liable to uncertainty: but we are inclined to think that, on the whole, the present is rather below than above the mark, and that land in Scotland would now fetch fully twice the sum which was reputed a fair rent in 1790. In England, the poor-rates operate to disguise the real advance in the price of labour.

Notwithstanding the limited influence which Mr. Wilson is disposed to ascribe to Banks, he is of opinion that the existence of a paper-currency has been the cause of a want of re-action of late years in regard to prices; that is, whenever prices were raised by a deficient harvest, the abundance of the circulating medium prevented their falling back to their former rate. He computes that the corn-bill of 1804 had the effect of permanently enhancing grain to the amount of 24 per cent.; and in regard to the grand question of the practicability of cash-payments, his opinion is that it will depend on the state of the exchange.— Though we disagree in some points with Mr. Wilson, we are disposed to rank this, as well as his former pamphlet, among the best which have appeared on the present question.

Art. 13. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Sir John Sinclair, Bart. M. P.* supporting his Arguments in Refutation of those advanced by Mr. Huskisson, on the supposed Depreciation of our Currency; including a Letter to Sir Charles Price, Bart. M.P. in August last, on the Report of the Bullion Committee. Second Edition. By J. M. Siordet, Merchant in London. 8vo. pp. 48. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

The writer of this letter is well known among the London merchants trading to the continent, having been engaged in business above forty years. His publication consists of a series of arguments in opposition to those of Mr. Huskisson, on various points of the bullion-question; in some of which we are inclined to differ from Mr. Siordet, at the same time that we acknowlege the utility of his remarks on matters of mercantile detail. The chief aim of his epistolary communication is to shew that the high price of gold bullion is caused, not by our currency being excessive, but by the state of our continental exchanges. 'The scarcity of gold in this country was created (he says) by speculators exporting it to the continent for returns in bills of exchange, by which a considerable gain was obtained. For example; at the time when he wrote (15th March 1811)

an ounce of exportable gold would cost in London -	£4 16 0
Freight, insurance, &c. - - -	0 4 0
	£5 0 0

The same gold would sell in Paris for 96 livres, with which a bill on London may be purchased at the exchange of 17 livres for 1l. sterling, making 5l.13s. sterling, and netting a profit of 13 per cent.'

The recent proposition in parliament, to open branches of the Bank of England throughout our principal towns, renders it proper to mention the manner in which banking business is transacted in Lancashire. Mr. Siordet's account serves to confirm what we had formerly heard on that head. There are in Lancashire, we understand, no Banks of circulation; nor are the notes of the adjoining counties currently received. When a sale of goods takes place, payment is made by bills on London at two or three months' date; and when these bills are discounted by a Lancashire banker, the nett amount is paid over in Bank of England-notes. Mr. Siordet remarks that a single Manchester Bank is in the habit of receiving weekly from London upwards of 20,000l. in Bank of England-notes, for that purpose; and the established commission on banking transactions in Lancashire is ¼ per cent., which stands in lieu of the advantage derived by other provincial Banks on the circulation of their notes. Such is the general practice throughout a county which ranks as first in extent of manufacture, and next to Middlesex in point of trade.

Mr. Siordet is evidently of opinion (p. 17.) that our restrictions on the continental trade are the chief cause of the present state of the exchange; although he does not choose to say explicitly in what respect he considers our government to be in error. He mentions (p. 20.) a curious anecdote of our Bank-Directors, viz. that those only who have passed the Chair are acquainted with the actual amount of bullion in the possession of the Bank. We were aware that, among the Bank-Directors, a great difference prevailed in respect to personal weight between those who had or those who had not passed the Chair: but we had not understood that a knowlege of the stock of bullion was one of the points of distinction.

Mr. Siordet has added a P.S. on receiving notice that the Bank had resorted to the expedient of raising the dollar to 5s. 6d.; a measure which he regrets. The chief blemish of his letter is the fulsome praise bestowed on Sir John Sinclair, whose maxims on coin and bullion he terms *invaluable!*

Art. 14. *Observations on the present Price of Bullion and Rates of Exchange*; wherein the Objections of Mr. Bosanquet and others to the Report of the Bullion Committee are attempted to be over-ruled. By George Woods, of His Majesty's Customs. 8vo. pp. 60. 3s. 6d. Baldwin.

Mr. Woods is a strenuous advocate of the Bullion Committee, and supports them with zeal against the attacks of Sir John Sinclair, Mr. Bosanquet, and other champions of the Bank. He writes, however, with moderation, and shews himself to be conversant with the doctrines of political economy. On some points, we are disposed to think that he has entered into superfluous argument; as for example in the disquisition (page 17.) intended to shew that the rate of interest is altogether independent of, and unconnected with, the quantity of circulating medium in a country. The well-informed part of his readers must be aware that it is by the amount of stock in a country, and not by the amount of that which circulates stock, that this important point is regulated. Though the public creditor has no option in the mode of receiving his dividends, and must be contented to take Bank of England-notes, we are far from comparing these notes to the assignats of France and the paper-dollars of America; comparisons which appear to us somewhat at variance with the temper which in general characterizes this pamphlet.

In his second chapter, Mr. Woods enters into an examination of Mr. Bosanquet's opinion of the influence of taxation in raising prices. That gentleman had computed that the effect of the taxes imposed since 1793 had been to enhance commodities to the extent of fifty per cent.; an estimate which appears to Mr. Woods, but by no means to us, to be over-rated.—On the subject of our corn-laws, on which so much stress is laid by Mr. Robert Wilson and several other writers on the side of the Bank, Mr. Woods is contented to remark that 'the free corn-trade, which this country enjoys, tends to keep down the price of this necessary article below the result which a calculation from the increased tax on land and labour would afford.' 'The corn-trade,' he adds, 'may be considered free so long as the average price of wheat is not below 66s. a quarter.' It is true that, since the corn-bill of 1804, the price of wheat has been steadily above the limit at which importation is prohibited; a circumstance which probably led Mr. Woods to speak of our 'free corn-trade:' but it is not the less true that the existence of a conditional restraint on importation has materially operated to the enhancement of our prices. It deprives the foreign grower of certainty in regard to the English market; because, though our prices at the moment may be above the specified rate, a plentiful harvest may suddenly reduce them, and exclude his supplies from access to our ports.

Mr. W.'s third chapter is appropriated to the subject of exchange. Whatever may be the effect of taxation in raising the price of commodities, we perfectly agree with him (p. 45.) that it can in no case account for a difference between bank-notes and bullion, nor for any variation in the course of our exchanges. He seems puzzled to explain the sudden occurrence of a fall in our exchanges in 1808, after they had kept up during eleven years of Bank-suspension. 'It is a question,' he says, 'of great curiosity and interest, but one upon which the present enquiry does not appear in any degree to depend.' Now from the latter part of this sentence we dissent most materially; since we conceive that an analysis of the revolution, which took place in our exchanges in 1808, is the best method of arriving at a thorough knowlege of the causes of their present state. We must pass a negative, likewise, on an opinion somewhat obscurely worded in p. 47, 48, that the agreement of 1808 between the Treasury and the Bank, providing for an allowance to government by the Bank in consideration of the amount of balances deposited, was productive of an extended issue and consequent depreciation of Bank-notes.—Mr. Woods suggests that an act might be passed, obliging the Bank to reduce their issues at a rate between 100,000l. and 200,000l. a month; and he is full of hope that, by proceeding in this gradual and moderate manner, the evils attendant on a resumption of cash-payments would not be serious. He mentions a fact of considerable importance in regard to the state of agriculture; namely, that, during the present unsettled state of our currency, the Duke of Northumberland has refused to grant leases on any terms: but we know that this is not a single instance of a noble Duke laying down a rule of never granting leases, and that such rule has long existed.—This pamphlet, if not a first-rate production on the score of originality, may justly be termed judicious and temperate; and it is superior to most publications on the same topic, in a point of no slight importance where the subject is intricate, we mean in a full and perspicuous table of contents.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, &c.

ART. 15. *An Account of the remarkable Effects of the Eau Medicinale d'Husson in the Gout.* By Edwin Godden Jones, M.D., &c. 12mo. 4s. 6d. White and Cochrane. 1810.

ART. 16. *A Letter to Dr. Jones,* on the Composition of the Eau Medicinale d'Husson. By James Moore, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Johnson and Co. 1811.

All the world has heard of the *Eau Medicinale d'Husson,* and of its wonderful success in curing gout; a success which indeed appears unquestionable. Dr. Jones's tract gives an account of the discovery of the medicine, and a detail of some cases in which it was employed. M. Husson, the discoverer, was a military officer in the French service, who is stated to have possessed 'an irresistible inclination for the study of botany, and the medicinal properties of simples. In the course of the researches to which this propensity led him, he discovered a plant, whose virtues were before unknown, which, on examination, was found to possess extraordinary virtues in the cure of various diseases. From this plant Husson prepared his medicine in its present form; and, after some experience of its powers, was persuaded to publish it; and it was accordingly announced to the world as a sovereign remedy for almost every disorder incident to the human body.' Such high encomiums led to a very extensive employment of the medicine; and it appears, as we might suppose would be the case with a compound capable of producing very powerful effects on the human body, that its indiscriminate use was attended with very serious mischief, so much as to cause its sale in Paris to be prohibited by an order of the police. It seems that M. Husson had no idea of the medicine being peculiarly appropriate to gout, and that the application of it to this disease was chiefly owing to Dr. Wolfe of Warsaw: but its reputation as a specific for this disease soon became established; and many attempts were of course made to ascertain its composition, though without success. A few years ago, Dr. Jones passed the winter at Montpelier; and, from the repeated accounts of its efficacy which he received, he was induced to pay particular attention to the subject, and to recommend the medicine to a friend who had suffered very severely from gouty attacks. The advantage which this patient derived from it induced others to follow his example, and its fame quickly extended. The result of our present experience respecting it is that it frequently removes the gout, or prevents its accession; and that it sometimes operates as a violent evacuant in all ways, but that at other times it has no sensible effect. When used in its proper quantity, and with due caution, Dr. J. says that it does not appear to affect the constitution in an unfavourable manner; and that in some instances the general health has been improved, after an occasional employment of it for two or three years.

Notwithstanding the previous failures which had taken place in the attempts to ascertain its composition, Mr. Moore was induced again to investigate this point; and regarding it as a subject on which it is not possible to arrive at absolute certainty, it must be acknowleged that he has been singularly successful. He has rendered it highly probable that this celebrated medicine consists of a vinous infusion of white hellebore and opium; and that 'a bottle of the Eau Medicinale d'Husson consists of a dram of the wine of white hellebore, mixed with half a dram of vinous laudanum.' The reasons which induce Mr. Moore to adopt this opinion are thus summed up:

'First, I have shewn by internal evidence, that there is a very strong presumption that Mr. Husson borrowed the idea of his composition from the praises bestowed on White Hellebore by the elder Pliny.

'Secondly, that the mixture of the wine of White Hellebore and Laudanum, allowing for the composition being made in a different country, and with a different wine, agrees with the Eau Medicinale in colour.

'Thirdly, that it differs but little in smell.

'Fourthly, that it agrees in taste.

'Fifthly, in dose, which is a very decisive circumstance.

'Sixthly, in its usual evacuant powers on the stomach and bowels.

'Seventhly, in its occasionally having no effect as an evacuant.

'And Eighthly, in its giving great relief in the gout, and abridging the paroxysm.'

Mr. Moore has shewn very considerable ingenuity and acuteness in the investigation; and his pamphlet is written with both spirit and candor. We must also do Dr. Jones the justice to acknowlege the obligation which he has conferred on his countrymen, by introducing this medicine among them; and to observe that we see no reason for suspecting that he had any interested motives in his recommendation of it: but as to the effects and safety of the remedy itself, we will not decide, without having had more experience of it. A general idea of its baneful effects on the constitution certainly now prevails, similar to that which led to the prohibition of it in Paris about thirty years ago.

Art. 17. *Additional Cases, with further Directions to the Faculty, relating to the Use of the Humulus or Hop, in Gout and Rheumatic Affections.* By A. Freake, Apothecary. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Highley.

Sometime has elapsed since we noticed a pamphlet by Mr. Freake, in which he recommended the Hop as an useful article of the materia medica, combining the virtues both of an anodyne and a tonic *. That this plant possesses valuable properties, we believe to be the fact; and the sanction which it has received from the London College, who have introduced it into their new Pharmacopœia, would seem to place this question beyond all doubt. The object of Mr. Freake is to bring it forwards more especially as a remedy for gouty and rheumatic affections; and he now presents a few additional cases, most of which are related by the patients themselves, which appear to have been attacks of irregular gout, such as are frequently brought on by various exciting causes, in those who are constitutionally predisposed to the disease. After the *failure* of so many *infallible* remedies for this complaint, we are unavoidably led to be very sceptical respecting any new proposal; yet we may venture to go so far as to say that the Hop deserves a trial; and that, if it should not eradicate the disease, it will probably prove harmless,—a negative advantage, which does not belong to all the gout-medicines that have at different times been so highly extolled.

Art. 18. *Observations on the Walcheren Diseases,* which affected the British Officers, in the Expedition to the Scheldt, commanded by Lieutenant-General the Earl of Chatham. By G. P. Dawson, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo. pp. 133. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

We have already encountered one publication on what has been called the Walcheren fever, (See Art. XIII. Review for February last,) and we have now to lay before our readers two other treatises on the same subject. Mr. Dawson frequently inculcates on us the fact that he possessed the most ample opportunities of experience respecting the disease, yet he is altogether silent as to the period in which he witnessed it, and the scene of his exertions. We are by no means disposed to accuse him of a direct attempt to mislead his readers on so important a point: but if, as we are induced to suspect, he was never out of this country, and saw the complaint only as it appeared in the men after their return to England, it would on every account have been desirable to make this acknowlegement.

The work commences with some remarks on the inexpediency and want of conduct that were exhibited in the political arrangement of this ill-starred armament; and though we cannot but coincide in the writer's censures, yet we think that they are misplaced in a medical treatise. Nothing masterly nor characteristic is discoverable in the description of the disease; and indeed it would appear that Mr. Dawson considered it as so well known that description was unnecessary. Yet so far is this from being a correct state of the case, that we believe the author himself has been deficient in his knowlege on the subject; and that he has mistaken for the genuine form of the disease, that peculiar modification which existed in the late stages, and when the patient was removed from the immediately exciting causes. He does 'not scruple to affirm that debility laid the foundation for almost all the diseases which affected the British troops, and in the majority of cases was the leading feature of them.' Debility is one of those mischievous words, of which we meet with a certain stock in all sciences, which convey to the mind an indistinct idea, and are therefore extremely convenient to employ on all occasions when persons wish to talk about what they do not understand. We cannot, therefore, consider ourselves as at all wiser for being informed that the Walcheren fever originates in or depends on debility. When we are told that the disease is not contagious, that bleeding is improper, and that purgatives are useful, we are indebted to the author for giving us what we may presume was the result of his own experience: but here we feel forcibly the ignorance in which we are left respecting the period of the disease, and the situation of the patients, when these observations were made. We are led to conclude that a great difference of opinion subsisted on the subject of mercury, as a remedy for the Walcheren fever. Mr. Dawson, although he recommends calomel to be given in large doses as a cathartic, argues most strenuously against its employment with a view to produce its specific action on the system: but, until we have much more ample information than we derive from this tract, we cannot regard the controversy as in any degree brought to a conclusion.

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* See Rev. Vol. liii. N. S. p. 311.

The style of this treatise is concise, and on that account is to be praised: but it is hasty, incorrect, and flippant. Besides the faults of the writer, the printing is very inaccurate, and the price very extravagant.

Art. 19. *Advice to such Military Officers and others*, as may be suffering from what has been called the Walcheren Fever, acquired on the late Expedition to the Scheldt: being the Substance of an Answer to a Letter on this Subject. By C. Griffith, M. D., Senior Surgeon to the Forces. 8vo. 1s. Egerton. 1810.

These 'friendly hints,' as the author calls them, are brief, and therefore we are not disposed to complain greatly of the time spent in perusing them, although we do not feel ourselves much instructed by them. The only circumstance of any practical importance, which deserves to be noticed, is that extreme liability to relapse, even from the application of very slight causes, which characterizes intermittent fevers. We have many low and damp situations in this island, not esteemed unhealthy, and which seldom generate agues, but which Dr. G. thinks might prove sufficient to cause relapses in those who had once suffered severely from the complaint in question.

Dr. Griffith gives a very mean idea of the state of medical science among the Zealand physicians: but we ought to have more decisive evidence, before we give implicit credit to the statement as exhibiting an accurate idea of the opinions of the best informed practitioners in that country. Instances might be found at home of physicians occupying a high station, whose ignorance is not inferior to that of the doctors at Middleburgh.

Art. 20. *The Elements of Experimental Chemistry.* By William Henry, M.D. F.R.S. &c. &c. 6th Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 5s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1810.

Although this is but a new edition of a well-known book, we deem it proper to notice it in our catalogue, on account of the very considerable addition which it has received, and of our opinion of its intrinsic importance. It is more than double its original bulk, and now consists of above 1100 closely-printed pages. The author, who is acknowleged to be one of the first chemists of the age, seems to have spared no pains in rendering his production worthy of the public favour, by incorporating into it all the newly discovered facts; and by giving an abstract of the latest hypotheses that have been advanced, on the various controversial questions which are now under discussion. The work is rendered particularly valuable by the different tables that are appended to it; which are, we believe, more numerous and ample than in any other similar publication.

If we were to offer any criticism of an unfavourable kind, it would be that the great increase of size has, in some measure, given the performance a new character; so that it can now be scarcely considered, in any respect, as differing from a systematic treatise on chemistry. As we are already in possession of two such excellent systems as those of Dr. Thomson and Mr. Murray, we rather regret that Dr. Henry has not kept his 'Elements' in the original compressed form; and we will suggest to him whether, when another edition is required, he should not rather attempt to reduce the whole into one 8vo. volume, than to continue from time to time to add to its bulk. On the same principle, also, we are disposed to question the propriety of entering so much into particular details, as he has done in some instances: it might be more suitable for an elementary work to give merely the result of experiments, and the general doctrines that are deduced from them, without laying down each individual step of the process, and entering into all the discussions to which they have given rise. We offer these remarks with the greatest respect to the author's judgment; and we feel confident that he will ascribe them to our anxiety to render his publication, which we regard as very valuable, still more excellent.

Art. 21. *On the Morbid Sensibility of the Eye,* commonly called Weakness of Sight. By John Stevenson, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Highley. 1810.

Mr. Stevenson here professes to treat on a disease of the eye 'which has not hitherto been described by writers, at least only incidentally, as a distinct disease, nor has its cure been established upon a rational pathology.' Our business will be to examine how far he is warranted in his claim to originality; how far his descriptions accord with any specific disease of the eye which we are able to recognize; and how far his pathology is correct. The characteristic symptoms of 'weakness of sight' are said to be 'a morbid sensibility of the eye to light, and different kinds of external stimuli;' a strong light excites in the eye 'a very acute sensation, which is accurately referred to the bottom of the organ.' The iris 'acts with great energy on the admission of the rays of light to the retina, and, in consequence, the pupil becomes contracted to a very small aperture; a striking feature of the disease;' there is generally an increased flow of tears from the affected eye, but in other respects the external appearance is perfectly natural. General debility is said to induce the complaint, and it therefore occurs more frequently among females: local diseases of the eye also strongly predispose to it, as well as any circumstances which may have tended to produce excessive exertions of the organ. The proximate cause of the disease is conceived not to be local debility, but 'an exquisite irritability and sensibility of the retina, an effect of great turgescency of the vessels, or a chronic inflammation of that membrane, or of the choroid.'

Having now seen what the disease is on which the author proposes to treat, we may inquire whether any such specific train of symptoms is a frequent occurrence; or, indeed, whether it has ever presented itself to our observation. We confess that we are disposed to answer in the negative; for although it be admitted that the morbid sensibility is occasionally more considerable than it might have been expected to be from the correspondent symptoms, yet our recollections lead us to state that, in all such cases, there has either been a visible fullness of the vessels of the conjunctiva, or some obvious affection of the edges of the lids. — We are still more disposed to criticize the pathological than the descriptive part of the work. The author attributes the disease to a chronic inflammation of the retina or choroid; the reasons for which opinion, as far as we can understand them, appear to be that the retina is previously in a state of increased sensibility, so that its accustomed stimulus, light, is too powerful for it, and therefore inflames it; and farther, because there is a great aversion to light in *hydrocephalus internus*, that this disease is attended with inflammation of the ventricles of the brain, and that the optic nerves arise from these parts: — it is supposed to follow, as a necessary consequence, that aversion to light always depends on inflammation of the retina. — Frequently as it falls to our lot to examine the baseless fabrics of physiology, we have seldom met with one of which the parts were less coherent or less substantiated than in the present instance. In the first place, what two parts of the body are more dissimilar in their structure, office, and organization, than the choroid and the retina? What is the cause of the increased sensibility to light in these parts, previously to the existence of the disease? Have we any evidence for the opinion that, in *hydrocephalus internus*, any part of the eye itself is inflamed? or that any of the parts which connect the eye with the brain are in this state? In a word, we regard the existence of the complaint, as a specific and undescribed disease, to be doubtful, and the pathology to be totally erroneous.

Art. 22. *Examination of the Prejudices commonly entertained against Mercury*, as beneficially applicable to the greater Number of Liver-Complaints, and to various other Forms of Disease, as well as to Syphilis. By James Curry, M. D. F. A. S. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Callow. 1810.

This pamphlet is given to the public as the precursor of a larger treatise on the effects of mercury; the author's present object being merely to request his professional brethren to suspend their judgment on an important point both of theory and practice, until the reasons be detailed in full on which his peculiar opinions are founded. We are so well acquainted with Dr. Curry's character and talents, as to look forwards to the publication of his larger work with interest, and to expect from it much valuable information: but we acknowlege that we must suppose the author to be biassed in favour of his peculiar doctrines, when we find him advancing the sentiment 'that the liver is as often disordered in England as in India.' In making this observation, we may perhaps appear to Dr. Curry to be liable to the imputation of *not* 'suspending our judgment,' until we are in possession of the arguments and facts which he proposes to adduce: but we might, on the other hand, object to the title of this pamphlet, as being a proof that the author has taken only a partial view of the subject, when he calls those feelings *prejudices* which many persons conceive to be principles derived from experience. Yet, whatever may be our present opinion on the subject of this inquiry, we will engage to bestow on Dr. Curry's promised work a candid consideration, and not to condemn any part of it without stating the reasons by which we are influenced.

Art. 23. *A Conspectus of the London, Edinburgh, and Dublin Pharmacopœias*: wherein the Virtues, Uses, and Doses of the several Articles and Preparations contained in these Works are correctly stated, their Pronunciation, as to Quantity, is correctly marked, and a Variety of other Particulars respecting them, are given: calculated more especially for the Use of junior Practitioners. By Robert Graves, M. D. F. L. S. &c. &c. 4th Edition. 12mo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Highley. 1810.

In briefly noticing this new edition of a work, the utility of which has been generally admitted, it will be sufficient for us to remark that the author appears to have carefully incorporated into it all the alterations which have lately taken place in the three British Pharmacopœiæ.

Art. 24. *A Dissertation on Insanity*, illustrated with Tables, and extracted from between Two and Three Thousand Cases in Bedlam. By William Black, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1811.

The object of this essay is to place, in the form of tables, some of the most important circumstances connected with the different species of insanity, and from them to deduce some general principles respecting the disease. The idea is good, and the present pamphlet contains some useful information; but, at the same time that we give it this praise, we are obliged to confess that we could very easily conceive it to have been much better executed. The most valuable facts,—indeed, as it would appear, almost the *only* facts,—are derived from the papers of the late Mr. Gozna, Apothecary of Bedlam. They are probably accurate; and the author has conferred a service on the public, by putting them in possession of these documents. Perhaps the most valuable of them is a table of the causes of insanity, which appears to have been drawn up from the observations of Mr. Gozna, made from the year 1772 to 1787. Nearly a quarter of all the cases are said to have been caused by misfortunes; nearly one-eighth are imputed to religion and Methodism; rather more than the same number were the consequence of fever; and about the same proportion are ascribed to an hereditary taint. We have reason to believe that, at present, a much greater proportion of insane patients derive their malady from the second of these causes.

Art. 25. *Observations on the Act for regulating Mad-Houses*, and a Correction of the Statements of the Case of Benjamin Elliott, convicted of illegally confining Mary Daintree; with Remarks addressed to the Friends of insane Persons. By James Parkinson. 8vo. 2s. Sherwood and Co., &c. 1811.

The writer of this pamphlet must be well known to our readers, as the author of some respectable and useful medical works; and he has appealed to the public on the present occasion, in order to vindicate his character from what appears to have been a very unjust attack on it. Highly as we admire and value the judicial constitution of our country, yet, like all human establishments, it is not without its defects; and we have here a case detailed, which we cannot but conceive to be a decided instance of the hardships which an innocent individual may suffer from an abuse or perversion of law. It is not, however, our province to enlarge on this topic; and we shall only farther remark concerning it, that Mr. Parkinson has defended himself and Mr. Elliott with temper and moderation.

From the circumstances which gave rise to this tract, Mr. P. is led into the general consideration of the symptoms of insanity, and of the means by which we are enabled to detect its presence; and to draw a precise line between that state which ought to subject the patient to confinement or restraint, and those peculiarities of character and deportment which do not justify any interference of this kind. It must be confessed that in many cases it is extremely difficult to form a correct diagnosis; and we not indeed conceive that any invariable rule can ever be laid down for this purpose. Many of Mr. Parkinson's observations are judicious, and deserve perusal, as being strongly illustrative of the difficulty of the question. They are also important as shewing the extreme caution which a medical man ought to exercise, not only with a view to his own character, but still more in consideration of the momentous effects which his decision may have on the friends of the patient.

Art. 26. *A Letter to Dr. Robert Darling Willis*; to which are added Copies of Three other Letters; published in the Hope of rousing a humane Nation to the Consideration of the Miseries arising from private Mad-houses: with a Preliminary Address to the Right Hon. Lord Erskine. By Anne Mary Crowe. 8vo. 2s. Ryan, &c. 1811.

We place this pamphlet immediately after the preceding, because it respects a case which leads to somewhat similar reflections. As far as we can judge from internal evidence, the writer seems to have been the subject of harsh and improper treatment, in having been confined in a private asylum as labouring under insanity, when she was in fact merely suffering from a temporary delirium, the consequence of corporeal indisposition. The letter is written with feeling, and must be read with interest.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 27. *Pure Evangelical Religion restored,* or Charity, Faith, and Good-works re-united, and triumphing over all Selfishness, Worldly-mindedness, Infidelity, Bigotry, Superstition, Fanaticism, and every other Corruption of Human Nature, by the Establishment of the Heavenly Kingdom of true Divine Love, Wisdom, and Peace, in the Human Bosom. 8vo. pp. 192. Kelly. 1811.

From the long title of this long pamphlet, we guessed the school from which it proceeded, and a perusal of it confirmed our conjecture. The late Emanuel Swedenborg is here exhibited not merely as a sage, but as an inspired person, and his doctrine as the pure evangelical religion: since, however, it is only given to *the wise* to understand it, and we are not of this wise set, we do not pretend to offer an account of it. He is made to talk of hidden meanings under the letter of Scripture, which were revealed to him while he was perusing that divine book; and of a peep into the angelic world, which was vouchsafed to him alone. A peep, did we say? yea more: 'for several years the good Emanuel was enabled to see the different societies in heaven and in hell.' We have, indeed, only his word for it, and he would be very angry if we should hesitate to take his word in so *probable* a case. 'My enemies,' replies Emanuel, 'call on me to *work miracles* in attestation of the truth of what I have related: but would they believe miracles if I should work them? besides, if they want miracles to convince them, what can be a greater miracle, than that a man like myself, whilst encompassed with a body of flesh and blood, should be enabled to see the great and invisible realities of another world?' (p. 131.) What a sage way is this of producing conviction, and of removing scepticism? Emanuel tells a wild rhodomontade story of his visions and revelations; and on their reality being questioned, he has the effrontery (or rather weakness) to appeal to his narration as an evidence of the fact. If pure evangelical religion cannot be restored without the interference of *such* a sage as poor Swedenborg was, we are in a very bad way! This admirer of his doctrine has laboured hard in the cause of his master: but we suspect that few will have patience to toil through the 192 pages which he has filled with such uninviting matter.

Art. 28. *The Duties of the Clerical Profession:* selected from various Authors, and elucidated with Notes. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Crosby and Co. 1810.

Out of the writings of Herbert, Macknight, Knox, Baxter, &c., this compiler has selected passages on various topics, in addition to a long passage from Gisborne on the duties of the clerical profession. In the form of notes, we have extracts on Sermons, Preaching, Example, Infidelity, Family-prayer, Non-conformity, Salvation, &c. &c. illustrative of the leading discussion. The publication is calculated for general use, and we suppose that it was designed by the compiler to find its way into many parishes: but in the introduction the word *Church* is confined to signify the church at Romsey, (the place where this tract is printed;) for it is added in a note to these words in the text, 'Doctrines of Christianity preached at Church,'—'the church is a very ancient Gothic building, sold to the inhabitants by Henry the Eighth for a hundred pounds!!' Hence it would appear that, whenever the term church is used generally, *Romsey-church* is understood!

Art. 29. *The Blessedness of the Christian in Death*: Two Sermons, occasioned by the Death of the Rev. Richard Cecil, M.A. late Rector of Bisley, and Vicar of Chobham, Surrey; and Minister of St. John's Chapel, Bedford-Row, London. Preached at the above Chapel; the 1st, August 26; the 2d, September 2, 1810. By Daniel Wilson, M. A. Minister of St. John's Chapel, and Vice-Principal of St. Edmund Hall, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 216. Seeley.

In these two sermons, or one funeral-sermon in two parts, the preacher first takes a full view of every member of his text, (Rev. xiv. 13.) and then proceeds to an account of the deceased; in which he endeavours to do justice to the memory of his beloved and distinguished friend, who is said to have been descended from the great Cecil Lord Burleigh, the distinguished minister of Queen Elizabeth. Mr. Wilson delineates Richard Cecil as a man, as a Christian, and as a minister: he presents us with a picture of his mind and of his heart; he expatiates on the piety and fortitude which he displayed in the last years of his life, which were grievously embittered by disease; and if this memoir be tolerably correct, which we have no reason to doubt, Mr. Cecil must have been a very estimable character. The reflections, with which the second discourse concludes, are apposite and practical. We are told that Mr. Cecil 'used to observe that there was a wide difference between what St. Paul calls "the foolishness of preaching," and "foolish preaching." Mr. W. was probably not aware that this remark was borrowed from Dr. South's sermons.

Art. 30. *Hulsean Defence for the Year* 1810. *An Essay on the Pre-existence of Christ*: to which are added, I. A Sermon on the Trinity. II. A Proposal respecting the Athanasian Creed. By Edward Pearson, D.D. Master of Sydney College, Cambridge, and Christian Advocate to the University. 8vo. pp. 108. 3s. sewed. Hatchard.

Most readers would probably be at a loss to understand the meaning of the first part of this title, were they not informed by the advertisement that, 'By the will of the late Reverend John Hulse, the *Christian Advocate* is directed to compose and to print every year, an answer or answers, in English, to all such cavils and objections against the Christian or revealed religion, or against the religion of nature, as may seem best or most properly to deserve or require an answer; as likewise to be ready to satisfy any real scruples or objections, in a private way, that may be brought from time to time by any fair and candid inquirer against the same.' In consequence of this appointment, Dr. Pearson, (now lately deceased,) undertook a defence of the doctrine of the Pre-existence of Christ, and adduced from the Fathers and from the Scriptures various arguments in its support. He observes that in 'the N. T. there are at least *fourteen* passages in which the preacher conceives the Pre-existence of Christ is expressly asserted, and more than *twenty-six* in which it is implied.' Most stress is laid on certain passages in the Gospel of St. John, which, if taken in their obvious meaning, are in favour of this doctrine, and which seem to bear hard on the Unitarian hypothesis.— The sermon on the Trinity contains nothing new, and is lengthened unnecessarily by the quotation of passages from the Book of Common Prayer, for the purpose of shewing (which no one ever doubted) that the doctrine of the Trinity is unequivocally maintained by the Established Church. If, however, Dr. P. does not argue forcibly, he writes with great liberality; and those who differ from him will admire the temper of mind by which he professes to be actuated.

The proposal respecting the Athanasian Creed refers to the omission of the damnatory clauses: but if any alteration should take place in the liturgy, the entire removal of this creed would be preferable to any amendment.

Art. 31. *A Letter to the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge,* and particularly to the Rev. Charles Daubeny, LL. B., Archdeacon of Sarum, occasioned by the Attack on Mr. Lancaster's System of Education, contained in his Sermon preached before them on June 1, 1809. By a Barrister at Law. 8vo. 1s. Mawman. 1810.

Liberal-minded men must be prepared to hear *their good evil spoken of*, and their best designs calumniated. It is not sufficient to avoid the appearance of giving offence; for evil will be thought to lurk "where no ill seems." This truth poor Mr. Lancaster has repeatedly experienced. Because, in carrying his system of education into effect, he cautiously avoided the narrow views of party, and compiled his lessons from those plain parts of Scripture which did not involve controvered doctrines, he has been attacked with the most unwarrantable severity, and has been charged with the crafty design of leading the rising generation away from Christianity to Deism. Never was an accusation more ill-founded. The first questions in education cannot be too simple. According to St. Paul, catechists are to be fed first with milk and then with meat: but his introductory milk-diet was never supposed to preclude the subsequent use of meat. — To speak without a figure;—if a set of questions and answers were drawn up for the use of young persons, founded on our Saviour's sermon on the mount, could it be said that a deistical education was intended? Mr. Daubeny and others have brought a charge against Mr. Lancaster's sensible and comprehensive mode of early tuition, which it is impossible to substantiate; and the present Barrister has taken up the cudgels for him with good effect. One passage will be sufficient to shew that this writer has the best of the argument:

'It is true, indeed, that Mr. Lancaster, when he instituted his own school in the Borough of Southwark, in order to make it extensively useful, held out, that though attachment to the tenets of his sect would not permit him to teach those of another, yet he would not inculcate his own. He therefore aimed at giving religious instruction, "unimpregnated with any of the distinguishing ingredients of the Christian system." This is done partly by reading the Old and New Testament, partly by the use of what he calls a Scripture Catechism, consisting of questions so framed that the answer to each consists solely of a passage of Scripture. This is the mode of education which is to lead to Deism! Have you so soon forgotten the doctrine of your text, that "the holy scriptures are able to make men wise unto salvation," 2 Tim. iii. 15. and do you, in contradiction to it, maintain that they are insufficient, unless aided by Creeds and Canons, and Articles, and Catechisms? — that the infallible divine institutes lead to Deism, unless fallible human institutes be superadded? — that God has left his work of revelation unfinished for man to complete? What is this, but to repeat in rather a new form the old doctrine of the dark ages of Popery, that the laity, or at least the vulgar, must seek for instruction, not in the Scriptures themselves, but in the interpretations of Councils, the decretals of Popes, and the commentaries of Priests? Between the conflicting opinions of St. Paul and Mr. Daubeny, I leave the public to determine.'

If Divines were to maintain that the substance of the thirty-nine articles should be taught as soon as children can say their A B C, we hope that the laity would know better than to take their advice.

Art. 32. *Revival of the Roman and Greek Empires:* being Observations on the Prophet Daniel's Metallic Image, the Interpretation of whose Form was to make known that which was to happen in the latter Days; also an Investigation of those Parts of the Apocalypse which appear to be derived from, and illustrative of, the Prophecies of Daniel, and the Ancient Types of the Old Testament, many of which were, from the first, indicative of the present opening Signs of the Times. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 575. Boards. Rivingtons. 1810.

He must be either very vain or very enthusiastic who again attempts the interpretation of Daniel and the Apocalypse, after so many learned and good men have completely failed in the enterprize. The gentleman before us buoys himself up with the hope of having made some discoveries: but we suspect that time will shew them to be, like the conjectures of his predecessors, mere illusions and creations of the brain. He talks of 'upper and under prophecy;' thus presenting the idea of a double stratum of prophecy, if we may so express ourselves; and he would flatter himself with possessing that keen vision which can penetrate through the superficial sense, to that which lies beneath. Thus gifted, he has found out 'the concurrence of prophecy with the present aspect of affairs;' and of course, if he be credited, he has produced a very interesting book. Yes, hear it, astonished reader! 'we are in the last century but one of that period which is to precede the millennium, before which every woe of the earth is to be finished.' — Conjecture is piled on conjecture, in the supposed interpretation of meanings included under the symbols of metals, beasts, heads, horns, trumpets, vials, wraths, plagues, &c. &c.: but nothing in the shape of discovery is made. In conclusion, the author has the modesty to hint at 'the probability that his conjectures are not *always* well founded:' but, lest this concession should be interpreted with too great latitude, he takes care to add, 'if not exactly here, yet *hereabouts* is the truth.' We cannot allow him this approximation. By his 'elongations,' he has only manifested his wild wanderings; and by endeavouring to penetrate to the substratum of prophecy, he has manifested his incompetency to dig in this mine.

POLITICS.

Art. 33. *Elements of Reform*, with a summary View of the Ways and Means, and other incidental Matter. By a Freeholder of Hampshire. 8vo. pp. 55. Johnson, Gosport; Longman and Co., London.

Our first objection to this little tract bears reference to its title, which conveys to the reader an idea that the essay is strictly political, while it proves, in fact, to have much more of a religious character. Having laid down the wholesome rule that the people are themselves the chief authors, in a remote degree at least, of the mischances that befall them, the writer proceeds to recommend a more general diffusion of the blessings of education. He begins with the clergy; and in preparing young men for holy orders, he advises that, in addition to the course at present pursued in our Universities, a knowlege of Hebrew and the acquisition of a Doctor's degree should be accounted indispensable requisites. He is an advocate, also, for the revival of provincial synods and parochial visitations. Although zealously attached to the Church of England, he rejoices at the independence of the Church of Scotland, and prays for the extension of similar liberty and even rights to the Catholics in Ireland: but he is no well-wisher to the numerous sects in England which have seceded from the Church. His opinion is that perfect freedom should be allowed in the choice of a religion: but when that choice is once made, he requires a strict adherence to the modes, circumstances, and ceremonies which are prescribed by the laws of a country. The great topics of his lamentation are the recent increase of the sectaries, the defective education of their teachers, and the irregularity of their mode of worship in barns, fields, &c.

After these serious exhortations on the subject of religion, the writer comes to the topic of government, and is not long in demonstrating his hostility to a reform in parliament. Having mentioned Mr. Fox's inconsistency in coalescing in 1782 with the object of his great political animosity, and Mr. Pitt's dereliction of the grand question of Reform, he deduces (p.37.) the sweeping inference that all political leaders are on a par, and amuse the multitude with the agitation of popular questions, merely to make them a 'tower of strength for their ambition.' Recapitulating the contents of his publication, (the fruit, he informs us, of age and observation,) he comprizes his recommendations of reform in the following compass:

1. A more correct system, not for the punishment but for the prevention of crimes. 2. An institution of police-magistrates through the county, divided into districts. 3. All prosecutions to be at the public expence, and a public prosecutor to be appointed under the Attorney-general. 4. Rewards to informers to be placed on a more regular footing. 5. A new arrangement for the disposal of convicts. 6. The establishment, as in Scotland, of parish-schools. 7. A reduction of law-expences, and a diminution of the number of privileged places for debtors. 8. A power to medical men to recover payment for their poorer patients, by summary process, in case of need, against the parish. 9. A complete reform of our poor-laws; and 10. An amendment of our criminal code, by a more certain and definite assignment of punishments to crimes.

It appears from this list, that the author's wishes are directed to several of the points which have engaged the attention of the benevolent and enlightened among our countrymen; and we should be glad to speak as favourably of his performance as of his intention: but critical justice forces us to observe that considerable excentricity and common-place are discoverable in these pages.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 34. *Iphotelle; or the Longing-Fit;* a Poem. By Ralph Palin. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies.

To combat the force of imagination by imagination, and to render the Pregnant Muse useful to Pregnant Women by dispelling whims and fancies, is the avowed object of Mr. Palin. He employs the machinery of "the Rape of the Lock," and discovers, in almost every page, a memory stored from the writings of Pope: but, though he liberally avails himself of the language and rhymes of the bard of Twickenham, he could not steal his genius and power of versification. The Goddess of Spleen thus addresses Iphotelle:

> 'Light as a feather are all women's wits,
> Weigh'd in thy balance, Nymph of longing fits!'

With this compliment she is dispatched to Lucinda, who longs for a bunch of grapes; which, not being accessible, the poor husband is apprehensive that his expected heir

> ——— —' may appear with a blue nose,
> One cheek snow white, and t'other black as sloes.'

However, reason prevails over whim, and the birth is thus announced:

> 'He comes, and fills each throbbing heart with joy,
> In his fair form a little deity.'

Joy and *Deity* are very indifferent rhymes: but they are not worse than *destroy* and *deformity*.

Art. 35. *An University Prize Poem*, on His Majesty King George III. having completed the Fiftieth Year of his Reign. By Nicholas John Halpin, T. C. D. 8vo. pp. 19. Dublin. 1811. London, Harding.

"Not for any money," hard as the times are, would we be so disloyal, as to object to poetry which has for its theme the virtues of our revered Sovereign,

> 'A King most favour'd of the skies,
> Whose glories with his virtues rise
> And with his virtues spread.'

In these circumstances, our safest course is to give a stanza, and leave our readers to their own judgment. Let it be that which glances at our successes in the Peninsula :

> 'But say, what chief shall ALBION send
> With GALLIA's warriors to contend,
> A chief whose valour may oppose
> The wily craft of subtle foes,
> Who round with hostile ardour swarm,
> Like wild waves in th' impetuous storm,
> Which on the shore tumultuous dash,
> And the rock's solid basis lash,
> And scatter spray, and foam and *toil*,
> While mix'd with sand the billows boil,
> 'Till spent—exhausted—they recoil !
> What chief whose victories may proclaim
> To all the word BRITANNIA's fame ?
> And prove *that* spirit still remains,
> Which crush'd the foe on BLENHEIM's plains,
> *Who is the chief ?*——the general voice
> Confirms our Monarch's happy choice,—
>   Tis WELLESLEY !—WELLESLEY echo rings :
> The hero by whose conquering sword,
> Each *Indian tribe*, each Savage horde
> To meet obedience was restor'd,
>   And fealty to the BEST OF KINGS !'

We say not that Mr. Halpin is not the best of poets : we only ask whether '*spray* and *foam* and *toil*' be not as odd an assemblage as mutton, muslin, and metaphysics ?

Art. 36. *The Pleasures of Anarchy* ; a Dramatic Sermon. 8vo. 3s. Hatchard.

What a strange title ! Viewed through the ironical glass, pleasures are easily converted into pains and horrors : but, in the name of Pegasus, or any other outlandish animal, who ever heard before of a dramatic *sermon ?* A sermon is a discourse assigned to one person ; whereas every dramatic composition is a dialogue distributed among a number of interlocutors. The author might almost as well have called this piece, which is regularly divided into acts and scenes, a dramatic theorem. To add to the singularity, a map is affixed, for the purpose of illustrating the text : but such a map, we believe, was never before engraved. As for the drama itself, the picture of Anarchy which it gives is abundantly darkened with horrors: but the plot is miserable, and the language poor in the extreme. It is probably the production of some French emigrant, who has learned to write tolerable English, and who has here made an effort to keep alive loyalty to the Bourbons, and detestation of the usurper. Though Anarchy prevails, and the lawful king is destroyed, the final exhortation to the adherents of the monarchy is,

———————— ' live for times
When yet your country may be served by you,
And rescued from the tyrant Cosri's grasp.'

Art. 37. *Nobility*, a Poem, in Imitation of the Eighth Satire of Juvenal. 4to. pp. 31. 4s. Gale and Curtis. 1811.

The moral of Juvenal's eighth satire is that '*Virtue alone is true nobility*,' and no writer has enforced it with more spirit and energy: but his remonstrances produced little effect on the corrupted patricians of the Roman world; and satire itself becomes pointless when states grow opulent, luxurious, and depraved. Though we are happy to know that such is not universally the case, yet hereditary honours, and the consequence which they give in society, are too often considered as superseding the necessity of virtue. Some of our moderns seem to construe Juvenal's celebrated line, "*Nobilitas sola est atque unica Virtus*," in the order of the Latin words, *Nobility alone and of itself is Virtue*; and to understand it as asserting that, provided a man possesses nobility, he may leave so vulgar a thing as practical virtue to plebeians. Against this fashionable mistake, the present Imitator points his quill: but we fear that the young nobleman, whether at the gaming-table in St. James's Street, or at Newmarket, or at the Four-in-hand Club, will rather be inclined to smile than to blush, when he reads Juvenal's line,

'*Paulus, vel Cossus, vel Drusus moribus esto*,'

thus imitated,

'More proud of morals pure, than purest blood,
Be thou a noble, what a noble should.'

After the many translations and imitations of Juvenal which have appeared, this attempt might have been spared.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Although the subject of the ensuing letter be not so perfectly novel, nor generally receiving so little attention, as the writer perhaps supposes, yet we give a place to it because the question to which it relates is curious, and is still very far from being solved; and because, also, it comes from an old and respected correspondent:

' To the Editor of the Monthly Review.

' Sir,

' The following idea I hope is not fanciful, and I believe it is new. It is long since it occurred to me; and in collecting materials and observations with a view to support it, I think I have been far from unsuccessful; but as I find the full prosecution of it rather unsuitable to my situation and my habits, and at the same time flattering myself that it is not unworthy of attention, I wish to take this method of broaching it to the public, not doubting that, if it deserves notice, the present rationally investigating age will not overlook it, and your valuable Journal will give it credit, and the best means of publicity.

'Is there not in the human constitution, nay in all organized nature, and perhaps even in what we call inorganized, a power whose office is to modify heat and cold? The human body, subjected to a confined atmosphere of extreme heat, cannot be made to acquire the degree of heat incompassing it; the same thing happens reversely when the human body is subjected to a confined atmosphere of cold. The fruit on the trees is always colder than the atmosphere around it, or the leaves and branches to which it belongs; the earth itself has acquired no additional heat from all the heat that has been poured upon it these thousands of years; nor have we reason to believe that the effects of cold are increasing in the coldest regions; and ought not the heat of animals, in whatever way generated or kept up, to be always increasing, not only sensibly to itself, but with evident effect on the general atmosphere? There must be a contrivance or power, then, in nature to effectuate all this; and this contrivance or power must be applicable to the different circumstances of being, and according to its necessities. In man, created for every climate, and every vicissitude, and as the most generally complete being we know of, we have reason to believe this power is most strongly marked.

'May not the general or topical suspension, or the derangement of this power, be the principal cause of fever, nay of most general diseases; and the loss of it the principal cause of death; and may not the existence of this power explain many of the phenomena of nature better than has hitherto been done? 'I am, Sir, your's, &c.

'R. C.'

Our *friend* PINDAR *(not Peter)* ridicules the expression in Mr. Walter Scott's *Vision of Don Roderick*, quoted in p. 298. of our Number for July, "and the loud hinges bray'd," which certainly is not very elegant; but perhaps *Pindar* did not recollect the Miltonic authority for it,

——" Arms on armor clashing *bray'd*
Horrible discord."

The note from the Rev. T. R. is received.

We have corrected, in the Table of Errata in our last volume, the miscalculation obligingly pointed out by *Curiosus*.

The petition of W. S. has been presented to their *Worships*: but the *Bench* must not be *mocked!*

NOTICE.

The APPENDIX to the last volume of the M. R. is published at the same time with this Number, and contains a variety of articles of FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the volume.—Any failure in the supply of it, particularly in the country, must arise from the want of a *specific order* for it being sent to the London booksellers.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For OCTOBER, 1811.

Art. I. *Letters of Anna Seward*; written between the Years 1784 and 1807. In Six Volumes. Crown 8vo. 3l. 3s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable; London, Longman and Co. 1811.

If, jealous for the honest fame of some illustrious dead, we have occasionally questioned the honour and even the morality of ransacking drawers and cabinets for the purpose of making collections of letters for general perusal, out of papers which were never designed to see the light, — if, in some instances, we have lamented the mistaken officiousness of friendship, and in others have reprobated the sordid motives which have operated in bringing the dead on the stage under circumstances highly to their disadvantage, — we cannot, in the case now before us, yield to any feelings of this kind. As far as the editor is concerned, he is exonerated from all the usual objections which attach to the publication of posthumous letters, Miss Seward having bequeathed the MSS., from which these volumes were printed, to Mr. Constable of Edinburgh, for the express purpose of their publication; so that the wish of the author is no more than fulfilled *. How far, considering the implied confidence of epistolary intercourse, this accomplished lady was justified in publishing, without their consent, her comments on the letters of her friends, exposing their foibles, their mistakes, and even occasionally making extracts from those letters, may be left to the decision of every reader. Certain, however, we are that several of her correspondents must be hurt at her freedom; that many will be sorry that her thirst for posthumous reputation had not been more qualified by discretion, and by a regard to the feelings of others; and that some may accuse her of unfairness, and will regret that they gave her an opportunity of inserting their names in the long list which constitutes her triumph of vanity. At her rage against all Reviews and Reviewers* we were much more diverted than offended; and we smiled to think that, while this lady, sitting on her throne of self-sufficiency in a provincial town, was incessantly playing the part of a critic on all works of taste and imagination, she should be so ready to pronounce that the remarks of other persons on the productions of the press were 'the impertinence of criticism.' Because Reviewers were not sufficiently courteous to her muse, Miss Seward has endeavoured to take ample revenge by leaving *a rod in pickle* for them among her posthumous papers: but her poor ghost will not be gratified at the manner in which these hardened culprits take her chastisement; nor will it be much delighted at the christian return which we are inclined to make for these animadversions. She shall learn, if she can learn, that we are disposed to be just, though she would provoke us to be otherwise; and that the talents and virtues which these her letters display shall have their full meed of commendation; though she was long in the habit of telling her friends that Reviewers were a set of —, —, —, —, —, —, —, —, !!!!!!!!

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* As a fac-simile of Miss Seward's hand writing, her posthumous letter to Mr. Constable is inserted after the preface. It is as follows:

'Sir, 'July 17, 1807.

'In a will, made and executed since I had the pleasure of seeing you in April last, I have left you the exclusive copy-right of twelve volumes quarto, half-bound. They contain copies of letters, or of parts of letters, that, *after* I had written them, appeared to me worth the attention of the public. Voluminous as is the collection, it does not include a twelfth part of my epistolary writing from the time it commences, viz. from the year 1784, to the present day.

'I wish you to publish two volumes annually; and by no means to follow the late absurd custom of classing letters to separate correspondents, but suffer them to succeed each other in the order of time, as you find them transcribed.

'When you shall receive this letter, its writer will be no more. While she lives she must wish Mr. Constable all manner of good, and that he may enjoy it to a late period of human life.

'Anna Seward.'

Much had this lady read and reflected; and uncommon pains had she taken to cultivate her mind, to improve her taste, and to expand her heart. She unquestionably ranks in the first class of British females; and the collection of letters which she has here prepared for the public will interest, amuse, and instruct. In offering her opinions on a great variety of subjects, she displays a masculine strength and capacity of mind, unfolding her sentiments in general with great command and felicity of language. In religion she is no bigot, and in politics no slave to fashionable and courtly opinions. She writes as she thinks, without constraint; and many of her observations are so correct in themselves, and so happily expressed, that they may be quoted as apophthegms for the direction of posterity. As a correspondent she was courted; and though she was vain of her talents, and both pedantic and arrogant in the display of them, the fund of knowlege and good sense which she disclosed made her gold current in spite of the alloy. Even as a critic, her powers are considerable; and in combating the excentricities of her critical friends, she manifests a portion of reading and acumen which is very rare among *blue-stockings*. She writes with all the pride of independence, and tells one of her correspondents that 'her indignation is apt to kindle at every appearance of people presuming upon the superiority of their situation.' It is very evident, however, that she is fond of the great; and that she is peculiarly flattered by the praise which comes from that quarter. In every letter, she appears to be writing for the public rather than for the individual to whom it is addressed, and in consequence of this circumstance a want of ease is apparent. With all her friends, indeed, she is full of display. She is even vain of her person; for she tells us that she has been thought to resemble Mary Queen of Scots, and Mrs. Fitzherbert, between whom no resemblance can exist; and her portrait, prefixed to the first volume of this work, must confine the similitude to the former, if it allows of any to either. Of her talents as a writer and a critic, no individual could cherish a higher opinion than herself*; and, notwithstanding she tells Mr. Hardinge that she had written on one of his letters, in which he spoke a little too plainly, "to be read frequently as a medicine against vanity," (see Vol. 2. p. 167.) we never hear that the drawer was again opened which contained this letter, for the purpose of applying the antidote which it furnished. More than once she quotes the golden rule of doing to others as we wish them to do towards us in similar circumstances: but, if she had been a young clergyman in want of a sermon for a particular occasion, and if a female friend who was *ready at composition* had kindly furnished that sermon, which on delivery had gained applause, what would Miss Seward have said of the honour and generosity of the real author, who afterward disclosed the fact in letters designed for publication and so marked the circumstances that the poor preacher of petticoat-sermons must be unmasked to the ridicule of all his acquaintance? Yet this has she done.—Her attentions to her aged and helpless father were truly amiable: but an affectation pervades her details of them, which ought to have been kept from the public eye.

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* On the subject of Reviews, Miss S. would have it supposed that she is quite in the secret: but never was a lady more completely in the wrong than in the assertions which she makes respecting the M. R. in Vol. ii. p. 9. Neither of the gentlemen there named ever wrote poetical criticisms in our pages.

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* Having in one place mentioned her own poems, she adds, 'I know their poetic worth.'

With all Miss Seward's high pretensions to authorship and to superlative critical sagacity, her style is not exempt from what Dr. Johnson denominates "colloquial barbarisms." Extensive as her acquaintance was, she knew little of the higher circles of fashion, and did not entirely banish those provincialisms, which are deemed marks of vulgarity in society of the first class. We find in her volumes such expressions as the following, which ought not to have occurred in the letters of a hypercritic; — in the letters of a lady who severely chastises her friend Mrs. Piozzi for her kitchen-phraseology: — '*One* can never be weary of wondering'; — 'to which *folk* are reduced;' — '*On my life* this seems;' — 'There had been *scarce* an instance;' — 'I had not been in London *this long time*;' — 'I was flattered that my picture was thought like by yesterday's *callers*;' — 'I do not think so highly of the Spectators *as is customary to speak*;' — '*some* two miles from Chesterfield;' — 'would have expressed this observation *somehow* thus;' — 'I have an *immense deal* to say,' &c. A long list also of new words may be collected from these volumes; such as *moleism*, — *beetleism*, — autumn-*alaties*, — *unaccountabilities*, — *miserism*, — *dupism*, — *courtierism*, — *frostism*, — *numskullism*, &c. &c. As to the last, we wanted, indeed, an abstract term for a quality which is so very abundant. Her copious application also of endearing epithets to her friends generally occurs without the prefixed article which grammar requires, as *charming Miss A.* — *excellent Mrs. B.*, — *delightful Mr. C.*, &c. when not personally addressed. A little coarseness of remark, too, not very feminine, is observable in the following passage: 'The evidence you bring of Mr. B——'s bachelor voluptuousness is irresistibly strong. I suppose Mr. Day knew it not, or, with his general abhorrence of sensuality, he had spared to mention him with so much esteem: — but, *Lord!* what a pale, maidenish-looking animal for a voluptuary! — so reserved as were his manners! — and his countenance! — a very tablet, upon which the ten commandments seemed written.'

Yet, after all the spots and blemishes which the perspicacity of criticism may discover in these volumes, the honest and impartial reporter (if such, according to Miss S., could be found!) will not hesitate to bestow on the writer of them warm and heart-felt praise, the praise which is due to a cultivated, discriminating, and fascinating intellect. — Our lady-authors, if they do not envy Miss Seward her fame, will be proud of this correspondence, and will quote it against the lords of the creation in proof of the equality of the female to the masculine intellect;—we ought to say, in proof of the *superiority* of the female mind; for Miss S. rides her great horse over and attempts to trample down the whole phalanx of men-critics.

It is unnecessary to remark that Miss Seward had the pen of a ready writer, when we state that this selection from her correspondence, which forms not *one-twelfth* of the whole, includes upwards of five hundred letters, some of them extending to a considerable length, addressed to a variety of ladies and gentlemen; in the list of which are Mr. Hayley, Dr. Percival, Miss Helen Maria Williams, Mr. Hardinge, (the Welch Judge,) Mrs. Knowles, (the Quaker,) Mr. James Boswell, Mr. Repton, (the Landscape Gardener,) Dr. Warner, Dr. Gregory, Mr. Wedgewood, Mrs. Piozzi, Mr. Crowe, (Public Orator at Oxford,) Dr. Darwin, Mr. Jerningham, Mr. Thomas Christie, Dr. Downman, Rev. Mr. Polwhele, Dr. Parr, Mr. Courtney, M P., Lady Eleanor Butler and Miss Ponsonby, Mr. Park, Rev. R. Fellowes, Dr. Mansel, (now Bishop of Bristol,) Mr. Southey, Mr. Walter Scott, &c. Many other names of less celebrity, present themselves in the table of contents: but to enumerate every one of this lady's correspondents would be to give a long and uninteresting catalogue.

Our readers, perhaps, may not be disposed to thank us even for this curtailed enumeration, observing that they are not so much concerned to know to whom Miss Seward addressed her letters, as to learn the subjects on which she employed her mind and her pen. To satisfy impatient curiosity, then, we shall present a *coup d'œil* of this miscellany. It offers to us this lady's thoughts on religion, morals, politics, music, preaching, poetic and prose composition, criticism, and the drama. She comments on the publications of the day, discusses the merits of statesmen and the policy of their measures, freely offers her sentiments, and gives way to her feelings on the subject of war, and our conduct as a nation relative to the French Revolution. When she attends the couch of her 'aged nursling,' as she calls her superannuated father, the sentiments of filial piety and affection breathe in her letters; and when death had broken this chain which confined her to her home, and her own indisposition obliged her to try the effect of bathing and change of air, her pen executes the office of the pencil, and all the tints of landscape-painting glow in her descriptions. Her loves, her hatreds, and her friendships are recorded, interspersed with references to those local and temporary occurrences which naturally blend themselves in a correspondence that passes between intimates. The general cast and complexion of these letters, however, must be said to be literary. Miss Seward is throughout the female critic, and she commences with strictures on the merit of Dr. Johnson. Some *good-natured* friend might have told her of the severe remark which this literary Goliah once made on her, viz. "that she had nothing of woman about her but the vices;" and goaded by a stigma so cruelly pointed, she might resolve on taking her revenge, which she wreaks by endeavouring to pull Johnson from that eminence of moral and critical fame to which the devotion of his admirers had exalted him. Yet, from whatever motives her observations on Jemmy Boswell's gigantic darling might have proceeded, her remarks on his character are for the most part just, and tend to exhibit the Great Growler with those shades which belong to his true portrait. In the fourth letter of Vol. I., addressed to Mr. Hayley, and dated Lichfield, December 23, 1784, she thus writes on the announced death of Dr. Johnson:

'At last, my dear bard, extinct is that mighty spirit, in which so much good and evil, so much large expansion and illiberal narrowness of mind, were blended;—that enlightened the whole literary world with the splendours of his imagination, and, at times, with the steadiest fires of judgment; and, yet more frequently, darkened it with spleen and envy; potent, through the resistless powers of his understanding, to shroud the fairest claims of rival excellence. *Indiscriminate* praise is pouring, in full tides, around his tomb, and characteristic *reality* is overwhelmed in the torrent.'

Writing to Mr. Boswell, she reprobates the biographer for not speaking of Johnson 'as he was, the most wonderful composition of great and absurd, of misanthropy and benevolence, of luminous intellect and prejudiced darkness, that was ever produced in the human heart.'—In another place, she adds more odious features to the picture. 'He was a strange compound of great talents, weak and absurd prejudices, strong but unfruitful devotion, intolerant fierceness, compassionate munificence, and corroding envy.' To the last of these traits, she attributes his critical injustice in the Lives of the Poets; an injustice for which, as a poet, she cannot forgive him. Let us hear her on this subject in a letter to Mr. Hayley, dated Lichfield, April 10, 1785:

'Mr. Boswell lately passed a few days in Lichfield. I did not find him quite so candid and ingenuous on the subject of Johnson, as I had hoped from the style of his letters. He affected to distinguish, in the despot's favour, between envy and literary jealousy. I maintained, that it was a sophistic distinction, without a real difference. Mr. Boswell urged the unlikelihood that he, who had established his own fame on other ground than that of poetry, should envy poetic reputation, especially where it was posthumous; and seemed to believe that his injustice to Milton, Prior, Gray, Collins, &c. proceeded from real want of taste for the higher orders of verse, his judgment being too rigidly severe to relish the enthusiasms of imagination.

'Affection is apt to start from the impartiality of calling faults by their proper names. Mr. Boswell soon after, unawares, observed that Johnson had been galled by David Garrick's instant success, and long eclat, who had set sail with himself on the sea of public life; that he took an aversion to him on that account; that it was a little cruel in the great man not once to name David Garrick in his preface to Shakespeare! and base, said I, as well as unkind. Garrick! who had restored that transcendant author to the taste of the public, after it had recreantly and long receded from him; especially as this restorer had been the companion of his youth. He was galled by Garrick's prosperity, rejoined Mr. Boswell. Ah! said I, you now, unawares, cede to my position. If the author of the Rambler could stoop to envy a player, for the hasty splendour of a reputation, which, compared to his own, however that might, for some time, be hid in the night of obscurity, must, in the end, prove as the meteor of an hour to the permanent light of the sun, it cannot be doubted, but his injustice to Milton, Gray, Collins, Prior, &c. proceeding from the same cause, produced that levelling system of criticism, "which lifts the mean, and lays the mighty low." Mr. Boswell's comment upon this observation was, that dissenting shake of the head, to which *folk* are reduced, when they will not be convinced, yet find their stores of defence exhausted.

'Mr. B. confessed his idea that Johnson was a Roman Catholic in his heart.—I have heard him, said he, uniformly defend the cruel executions of that dark bigot, Queen Mary.'

Johnson's religious bigotry is well known; and his singular conversation with Mrs. Knowles, the fair Quaker, has been partially given to the public: but, as Miss Seward undertakes to exhibit it with more accuracy than Boswell has manifested, we shall transcribe the letter in which this dialogue is detailed:

'Letter XXII.—To Mrs. Mompessan.

'Wellsburn, near Warwick, Dec. 31, 1785.

'Behold, dear Mrs. Mompessan, the promised minutes of that curious conversation which once passed at Mr. Dilly's, the bookseller, in a literary party, formed by Dr. Johnson, Mr. Boswell, Dr. Mayo, and others, whom Mrs. Knowles and myself had been invited to meet, and in which Dr. Johnson and that lady disputed so earnestly. It is, however, previously necessary that you should know the history of the very amiable young woman who was the subject of their debate.

'Miss Jenny Harry that was, for she afterwards married, and died ere the first nuptial year expired, was the daughter of a rich planter in the East Indies. He sent her over to England to receive her education, in the house of his friend, Mr. Spry, where Mrs. Knowles, the celebrated quaker, was frequently a visitor. Mr. Spry affected wit, and was perpetually rallying Mrs. Knowles on the subject of her quakerism, in the presence of this young, gentle, and ingenuous girl; who, at the age of eighteen, had received what is called a proper education, one of the modern accomplishments, without having been much instructed in the nature and grounds of her religious belief. Upon these visits Mrs. Knowles was often led into a serious defence of quaker-principles. She speaks with clear and graceful eloquence on every subject. Her antagonists were shallow theologists, and opposed only idle and pointless raillery to deep and long-studied reasoning on the precepts of Scripture, uttered in persuasive accents, and clothed with all the beauty of language. Without any *design* of making a proselyte she gained one.

'Miss Harry grew pensively serious, and meditated perpetually on all which had dropt from the lips of Mrs. Knowles on a theme, the infinite importance of which she then, perhaps, first began to feel. At length, her imagination pursuing this its *primal* religious bias, she believed quakerism the only true Christianity. Beneath such conviction, she thought it her duty to join, at every hazard of worldly interest, that class of worshippers. On declaring these sentiments, several ingenious clergymen were commissioned to reason with her; but we all know the force of first impressions in theology. This young lady was argued with by the divines, and threatened by her guardian, in vain. She persisted in resigning her splendid expectations for what appeared to her the path of duty.

'Her father, on being made acquainted with her changed faith, informed her that she might choose between an hundred thousand pounds and his favour, or two thousand pounds and his renunciation, as she continued a churchwoman or commenced a quaker.

'Miss Harry lamented her father's displeasure, but thanked him for the pecuniary alternative, assuring him that it included all her wishes as to fortune.

'Soon after she left her guardian's house, and boarded in that of Mrs. Knowles; to her she often observed, that Dr. Johnson's displeasure, whom she had seen frequently at her guardian's, and who had always appeared fond of her, was among the greatest mortifications of her then situation. Once she came home in tears, and told her friend she had met Dr. Johnson in the street, and had ventured to ask him how he did; but that he would not deign to answer her, and walked scornfully on. She added, "you are to meet him soon at Mr. Dilly's — plead for me."

'Thus far as prefatory to those requested minutes, which I made at the time of the ensuing conversation. It commenced with Mrs. Knowles saying,—"I am to ask thy indulgence, Doctor, towards a gentle female to whom thou usedst to be kind, and who is uneasy in the loss of that kindness. Jenny Harry weeps at the consciousness that thou wilt not speak to her.".

"Madam, I hate the odious wench, and desire you will not talk to me about her."

"Yet what is her crime, Doctor?"—"Apostacy, Madam; apostacy from the community in which she was educated."

"Surely the quitting one community for another cannot be a crime, if it is done from motives of conscience. Hadst thou been educated in the Romish church, I must suppose that thou wouldst have abjured its errors, and that there would have been merit in the abjuration."

"Madam, if I had been educated in the Roman Catholic faith, I believe I should have questioned my right to quit the religion of my fathers; therefore, well may I hate the arrogance of a young wench, who sets herself up for a judge on theological points, and deserts the religion in whose bosom she was nurtured."

"She has not done so; the name and the faith of Christians are not denied to the sectaries."

"If the name is not, the common sense is."

"I will not dispute this point with thee, Doctor, at least at present, it would carry us too far. Suppose it granted, that, in the mind of a young girl, the weaker arguments appeared the strongest, her want of better judgment should excite thy pity, not thy resentment."

"Madam, it has my anger and my contempt, and always will have them."

"Consider, Doctor, she must be *sincere.*—Consider what a noble fortune she has sacrificed."

"Madam, Madam, I have never taught myself to consider that the association of folly can extenuate guilt."

"Ah! Doctor, we cannot rationally suppose that the Deity will not pardon a defect in judgment (supposing it should prove one) in that breast where the consideration of serving him, according to its idea, in spirit and truth, has been a preferable inducement to that of worldly interest.

"Madam, I pretend not to set bounds to the mercy of the Deity; but I hate the wench, and shall ever hate her. I hate all impudence; but the impudence of a chit's apostacy I *nauseate.*"

"Jenny is a very gentle creature.—She trembles to have offended her parent, though far removed from his presence; she grieves to have offended her guardian, and she is sorry to have offended Dr. Johnson, whom she loved, admired, and honoured."

"Why then, Madam, did she not consult the man whom she pretends to have loved, admired, and honoured, upon her newfangled scruples? If she had looked up to that man with any degree of the respect she professes, she would have supposed his ability to judge of fit and right, at least equal to that of a raw wench just out of her primmer."

"Ah! Doctor, remember it was not from amongst the witty and the learned that Christ selected his disciples, and constituted the teachers of his precepts. Jenny thinks Dr. Johnson great and good; but she also thinks the gospel demands and enjoins a simpler form of worship than that of the established church; and that it is not in wit and eloquence to supersede the force of what appears to her a plain and regular system, which cancels all typical and mysterious ceremonies, as fruitless and even idolatrous; and asks only obedience to its injunctions, and the ingenuous homage of a devout heart."

"The homage of a fool's-head, madam, you should say, if you will pester me about the ridiculous wench."

"If thou choosest to suppose her ridiculous, thou canst not deny that she has been religious, sincere, disinterested. Canst thou believe that the gate of Heaven will be shut to the tender and pious mind, whose *first* consideration has been that of apprehended duty?"

"Pho, pho, Madam, who says it will?"

"Then if Heaven shuts not its gate, shall man shut his heart?—If the Deity accept the homage of such as sincerely serve him under every form of worship, Dr. Johnson and this humble girl will, it is to be hoped, meet in a blessed eternity, whither human animosity must *not* be carried."

"Madam, I am not fond of meeting fools anywhere; they are detestable company, and while it is in my power to avoid conversing with them, I certainly shall exert that power; and so you may tell the odious wench, whom you have persuaded to think herself a saint, and of whom you will, I suppose, make a preacher; but I shall take care she does not preach to *me*."

'The loud and angry tone in which he thundered out these replies to his calm and able antagonist, frightened us all, except Mrs. Knowles, who gently, not sarcastically, smiled at his injustice. Mr. Boswell whispered me, "I never saw this mighty lion so chafed before."'

Great as Johnson was, in this instance he is completely vanquished, and hides his diminished head in the presence of his female opponent. Feelings of contempt for him must be excited by the irrational and weak bigotry, and the unmeaning abuse, which this dialogue developes.

All who have perused Johnson's life of Milton are acquainted with the violence of his prejudices against this eminent writer, but especially with his absurd criticisms on the Lycidas, the beauties of which he could not or would not perceive. On the other hand, Miss Seward coincides with us in regarding this monody as supremely beautiful, and first-rate of its kind. She, indeed, considered it as a test-poem, by which a person's taste for poetry might be ascertained; and an anecdote is recorded by her, which shews how completely at variance she and the author of the Rambler were on this subject:

'Johnson told me once, "he would hang a dog that read the Lycidas twice." "What then," replied I, "must become of me, who can say it by heart; and who often repeat it to myself, with a delight "which grows by what it feeds upon?" "Die," returned the growler, "in a surfeit of bad taste."

Not to feel the wit of the reply is impossible: but, after the smile which it must occasion has subsided, we shall perceive that it is no indication of judgment, and be prepared for Miss S.'s remark:

'Thus it was, that the wit and awless impoliteness of the stupendous creature bore down, by storm, every barrier which reason attempted to rear against his injustice. The injury *that* injustice has done to the claims of genius, and the taste for its effusions, is irreparable.'

As the respect of mankind for dogmatism and bigotry diminishes, they will be less disposed to venerate those narrow-minded, illiberal, and, in some instances, envious decisions which Johnson has fulminated: but, if the British Muse owes him no obligations for the treatment which she received at his hands, our modern prose has derived unquestionable strength and energy from the latinized style which he introduced; and though Miss S. exposes his deficiency of discernment in the higher walks of poetry throughout this correspondence, she does him full justice on the score of his having elevated the style of our prose-compositions.

We contrast with this account of Johnson the writer's enthusiastic admiration of the talents and supereminent learning of Dr. Parr. We find her, in a letter to her *particular* friend Mr. Saville, dated Wellsburn, Dec. 7, 1792, thus expressing herself, after a visit with which she was honoured by this great intellectual luminary:

'When I had the honour of a visit from Dr. Parr, he staid two days and nights at Wellsburn. I was prepared to expect extraordinary colloquial powers, but they exceeded every description I had received of them. He is styled the Johnson of the present day. In strength of thought, in promptness and plenteousness of allusion; in wit and humour, in that high-coloured eloquence which results from poetic imagination—there is a very striking similarity to the departed despot. That, when irritated, he can chastise with the same overwhelming force, I can believe; but unprovoked, Dr. Parr is wholly free from the caustic acrimony of that splenetic being. Benign rays of ingenuous urbanity dart in his smile, and from beneath the sable shade of his large and masking eyebrows, and from the fine orbs they overhang. The characters he draws of distinguished people, and of such of his friends, whose talents, though not yet emerged, are considerable, are given with a free, discriminating, and masterly power, and with general independence of party prejudices. If he throws into deepest shade the vices of those, whose hearts he thinks corrupt, his spirit luxuriates in placing the virtues and abilities of those he esteems in the fairest and fullest lights; a gratification which the gloomy Johnson seldom, if ever, knew.

'Dr. Parr is accused of egotism; but if he often talks of himself, all he says on that, as on every other theme, interests the attention, and charms the fancy. It is surely the dull and the envious only who deem his frankness vanity. Great minds must feel, and have a right to avow their sense of the high ground on which they stand. Who, that has a soul, but is gratified by Milton's avowals of this kind, when, in the civil wars, exhorting the soldier to spare his dwelling, the poet declares his power to requite the clemency; to spread the name of him who shewed it over seas and lands;

"In every clime the sun's bright circle warms."

'Dr. Parr is a warm whig, loves our constitution, and ardently wishes its preservation; but he says malignant and able spirits are at work to overthrow it, and that with their efforts a fatal train of causes co-operate.

'I saw him depart, with much regret, though his morning, noon, and evening pipe involved us in clouds of tobacco while he staid, but they were gilded by perpetual vollies of genius and wit.'

A mere fine lady would not have been so civil to Dr. Parr's pipe of tobacco: but that Miss S., in spite of these vulgar fumes, could be enraptured with her guest's wit and genius, enjoying his "feast of reason and his flow of soul," must prove her to have been a woman of mind; — a woman who soared above ordinary *femalities*. As a farther proof how discursive her mind was, and with what freedom she wrote to her correspondents, we transcribe a part of a long letter to Mrs. Knowles, dated Feb. 23, 1790.

'Genius and eloquence shed all their lustre over your professions of benevolent faith, concerning the progressive state of virtue and true piety, upon this little speck in the universe — our earth; — but I, a colder sceptic concerning such progress, am afraid there never was so little of either to be found upon its surface. With the weeds of religion, her persecuting cruelties, the flowers, alas, have been rooted up. Numbers assure me, who have had opportunities of seeing and knowing, that France is almost wholly a nation of Deists; — that her people at large have been laughed by Voltaire, out of persecution, on one

' Is it possible you have not read the Piozzian travels? You, who profess to interest yourself in the female right to literature and science, ought not to turn such a cold incurious eye towards any thing which advances the progress of that claim. With all its unaccountable oddness, and perpetual vulgarism of style, it is highly worth the attention of kindred genius. If you would like to know the soil of the clime, the scenery, the disposition, the manners, the habits of the cities of Rome, Naples, Genoa, Venice, Bologna, &c. just as familiarly as you know all these things at Rugely, Birmingham, and Lichfield, you must shut yourself up for a few days with those volumes. No other travels I ever read possess their discriminating powers.

' I am charmed with your portraits of our Princes at Brighthelmstone, and their train of supple courtiers. If I had not so often seen ordinary phizzes resemble beautiful ones, I should be flattered that you think me so like the buxom widow, who tows our plump heir-apparent about by the heart-strings. Several others have told me of the resemblance between us.

' My dear father yet exists. During three weeks of this flower-soft winter, he suffered so much from a violent cough and difficulty of breathing that, if the disorder had continued, I hope I should not have been so selfish as to wish his life prolonged; but, recurring to his former quiescent state, my ardent desire to detain yet longer this dim resemblance of a beloved parent repossesses my heart.

' Last week arrived news that thrilled my heart with tender melancholy; the cutting off, by hereditary consumption, of that fair blossom, the daughter of my lost Honora. I have been assured she possessed her mother's beauty, and all those native intellectual graces, whose influence shone long upon my happiness, like a vernal morning. —Honora Edgworth was just fifteen. And grievous is the consciousness, that all remains, all traces of my soul's idol vanish thus from the earth. Her boy, ever feeble and delicate, will, I suppose, follow his lovely sister to an early grave.

' Lady G. of Lichfield, long invalid, and far advanced in life, sunk from us some few months since. A civil, social being, as you know, " whose care was never to offend;" who had the spirit of a gentlewoman, in never doing a mean thing; whose mite was never withheld from the poor; and whose inferiority of understanding and knowledge found sanctuary at the card-table, that universal leveller of intellectual distinctions. Her loss will make a considerable chasm in the pleasures of many, who like to be often engaged in card-parties, without the trouble of forming them at home.

' Soon after followed the very aged Mrs. F., who had lived ninety-two years in the world, without conciliating the esteem of a single being. A creature of selfish avarice, she died unlamented.

' Seldom have I seen a young man more qualified to pass innocently, laudably, and happily, a life of leisure, than your George. If he likes the sports of the field, moderately taken, they would *advantage* his health; and when there is such a love of books and the pencil, as dwells with him, no danger would surely arise, that he should take field sports immoderately. His dependence upon you, his attachment to your person, your abilities, your virtues, form a bulwark about him against the vices of youth. The fortune which he will inherit from you, as the reward of his good conduct, is more than competent to the elegant comforts of life. Ah! why then endeavour to inspire him with the desire of accumulating so affluent a property? Is there a passion,—nay, is there a vice, which the New Testament declares more fatal to Christian peace, and Christian virtue, than the thirst of riches? Never has experience shewn that happiness was the result of wealth, beyond the pale of affluence. Finely does that master of the human heart, that Shakespeare of prose, Richardson, express himself upon this subject: "You are, all of you, too rich to be happy, child; for must not each of you, by the constitutions of your family, be put upon making yourselves still richer; and so every individual of it, except yourself, will go on accumulating; and, wondering that they have not happiness, since they have riches, continue to heap up, till death, as greedy an accumulator as themselves, gathers them into his garner."

'It seems strange to me, that any person of an exalted mind, untainted with the vices of profusion, and undazzled by the splendour of ostentation, can wish a beloved child to imbibe the desire of increasing an affluent property;—stranger still, that a pious character should so wish, since the Scriptures declare it easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of heaven. The expression, *rich man*, certainly means a miser; and how great a temptation to this exclusive vice, is the habit of living daily in contemplation, and constant attention, to heaps of sordid Mammon!

'Forgive my ingenuousness; the sincerity of an almost life-long friendship.'

That Miss S. possessed a feeling heart, and sympathised with her friends in their sorrows, these volumes exhibit abundant testimony; and if it were possible for affliction to receive relief from reflections adapted to the house of mourning, her letters must have been prized by her grief-stricken correspondents as a balm to the heart. She never flatters riches: but, conscious of the superiority of intellectual endowments, she despised that money-vanity which is so very characteristic of this Mammon-worshipping age. Our readers shall see how her thoughts flow when she takes a glance at mortality and the world. Writing to Mr. Cotton, she says:

'Alas! poor Mrs. Style! I hoped to have felt my heart expand again and again in the warm benevolence which shone out in her countenance, and in her manners. I should yet more regret that you have lost her, had you not told me that clouds of causeless dejection were apt to involve, and, during long intervals, darken its light. The idea of a friend's sufferings, so painful to us while they are endured, becomes lenient and consolatory when it hovers over their sepulchre; yet must you long feel a dreary vacuity in Lady Fane's circle. Local circumstances are great nourishers of regret.

"When to the old elm's wonted shade return'd,
Then, then I miss'd my vanish'd friend—and mourn'd."

It is peculiarly proper that I should condole with you on the loss of your friend this day—for it is the 17th of March; the birth-day of my lovely long-deceased sister, who died in her nineteenth year—"a fair flower soon cut down on our fields. The spring returned with its showers, but no leaf of her's arose:"—yet does not my heart forget this day, which gave to life an amiable creature, who shed the light of joy over many of my youthful years. Many are fled since she vanished from earth. Time balms sorrow, and there is a joy in grief when the soul is at peace. But I am conscious there are deprivations, the wound of which no time can balm. Then it is that anguish wastes the mournful, and their days are few. Heaven preserve my heart, and the hearts of all I love, from the corrosive impression of such a woe!

'Here is nothing to be called news which can interest you. Some of us are grown very fine. The ——'s and ——'s, whom you remember contentedly moving in general equality with their neighbours, have, amidst their, of late years, improving fortunes, taken great state upon themselves; affect to live in what they call style; to associate chiefly with Lords and Esquires of high degree in the environs. They think, no doubt, that thus externally elevating themselves, they shall excite the envy of their neighbours, that darling triumph of contracted minds. They certainly do excite it amongst the many who would act the same part if they had the same golden means. But there are two classes of people who look down upon such low-souled ambition, and all its silly ostentations;—the religious and the literary. Earthly parade can draw no jealous glances from eyes that are often lifted up to Heaven; and the votaries of intellectual and lettered pleasures, look upon their lacquies and lords, their strutting and their style, with as undazzled and untroubled eyes as eagles can be supposed to cast on glow-worms, when they have been recently gazing on the sun.'

Miss Seward was not rich; having, as she informs us in one of her letters on the death of her father, scarcely 400l. a year: but she appears to have been a good economist, and, with a proper spirit of independence, to have discharged the duties of friendship and hospitality, and to have taken those excursions which were necessary for her health. Her mode of life is displayed in these letters; and therefore, for the period which they include, they may be considered as her memoirs. We purpose, in a subsequent number, to display other features of her mind, and to prepare farther entertainment for our readers.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *Exposé Statistique,* &c. *i. e. A Statistical Account of Tonquin, Cochin-China,* &c. &c.

[*Art. concluded from the last* Appendix, p. 526.]

In resuming our report of this curious and novel production, we now come to the head of *Form of Government and State of Society.* If, from contemplating the physical character of the country of Tonquin, we turn our eyes to the state of society among its inhabitants, we shall speedily discover the marks of that inferiority to Europe which characterizes the greater part of Asia. Descended from the Chinese, the Tonquinese have blindly retained the government of their ancestors, without discriminating its defects from its merits, and without comprehending the changes which are required by a difference of situation. The principle of the Tonquinese, as of the Chinese government, is to consider the empire as a family of which the sovereign is the father; while every Mandarin and inferior functionary is accounted, in like manner, the father of the quarter committed to his charge. The power of the monarch is absolute, the consent of no class of subjects being requisite to give validity to his edicts: the succession is hereditary in the male line, according to the order of primogeniture, but with power, on the part of the monarch, to alter this destination in favour of any of his legitimate children. The people are forbidden to carry arms: but any individual has a right to present memorials on a subject of public interest. The state allows no hereditary nobility, the only distinction being between the people at large and the servants of the crown; the latter comprehending all ranks, from the highest Mandarin down to the private soldier. Even in the royal family, nobility is hereditary only as far as the nephew of the sovereign. The Mandarins form two classes, the civil and the military; and each class has seven gradations of rank. Though the people have no right to add their sanction to the decree of the sovereign, they possess a portion of power in regard to municipal regulations and the local application of their edicts of government. This power is exercised by each *commune,* or district, which holds meetings, and makes choice of official leaders. The government of Cochin-China is similar to that of Tonquin: but the countries of Laos and Tsiampa are in too barbarous a state to be the objects of any regular exercise of authority, and Lac-tho is generally a prey to intestine commotions. In regard to foreign policy, the principle of the Tonquinese government is in general distrust; and they cannot be exempted from the charge of that infidelity to their promises, which is common among Asiatic courts. They are aware that the Chinese cling to the expectation

ation of one day recovering possession of Tonquin, and are jealous of its recent independence: but this national antipathy, however strong, does not prevent the existence of a free state of commercial intercourse between the two countries.

Following the arrangement observed by the author of this work, we arrive next at the important topic of *Matrimony*; which, in Tonquin, as among ourselves, is a contract for life, though the knot is not tied by such indissoluble bands. The common mode of demanding a young woman in marriage is that the parents of the suitor should present the parents of the female with victuals, the acceptance of which implies consent: but in some quarters a method is very coolly adopted to ascertain the respective dispositions of the young people before marriage; we mean the custom of the young man going for months and even years to labour with the family of his intended bride, for which, in the event of the projected treaty being broken off, he receives payment on his departure. The act which legalizes the connection is the payment of the public tax on marriages, the amount of which varies from three to twenty crowns. The union of the young couple is afterward celebrated by a feast given by the parents of the bride, and attended by the relations on both sides, who generally contribute presents to a greater value than the expence of the entertainment. So far all is respectful and courteous towards the lady: but a different opinion must be expressed of her condition when she has fairly entered on the married state, the law directing that she shall then be wholly in her husband's power. He has not only the right of disposing of her property, which seldom goes beyond a little furniture and dress, but he is absolute master of her person, and possesses the ungracious prerogative of inflicting blows and confining her in chains. This right, the certain sign of backward civilization, extends even to the highest classes. With equal injustice towards the weaker sex, the law prescribes the power of divorce to rest exclusively with the husband, and permits him to resort to it on slight grounds. A want of respect on the part of the wife towards him, in the presence of a third person, will be held a sufficient cause; and the mode of separation is equally summary. The usband gives his wife a certificate of abandonment, which is corded by a public officer; after which the wife resumes pos- ion of her dowry, and is at liberty to contract a second riage, the children remaining with the father. In a case olygamy, only one of the number is accounted the wife, and is the sole mistress of the house; her au- extending over the other female inmates as if they were vants. The barbarous custom of exposing new-born children, so common in China, is unknown in Tonquin; provisions, as already remarked, being so abundant as to render a numerous family not only honourable but profitable. The father's power over them is unlimited; and he may put them to hire, while under the age of eighteen, sending their mother along with them under the title of guardian:

'Nothing can be more simple than the management of a civil process in this country. On a complaint being made before a judge, the person accused is led by the civil officers into court, and confronted with his accuser. No lawyers are employed, and the successful party receives an order for the payment of his costs: but there, as nearer home, he finds himself generally out of pocket by going into court. A delinquent detected in the commission of an act, which does not belong to the class of heinous offences, is seized, bound, and carried to his own house by the civil officers, who regale themselves at his expence, and, without farther process, impose a fine on him. He is at liberty to appeal to the judge, but at the hazard of suffering an aggravation of the sentence. Public prisons are formed in the large towns only; in other quarters, the houses of the Mandarins answer the purpose, and are fitted up with that view. All immorality and infractions of decency are rigorously punished. The mother of an illegitimate child is severely fined, and publicly flogged; and adultery is punished with the death of both parties. Notwithstanding the beneficent intentions of the law, the administration of justice is very indifferent, the magistrates and even the judges being very corrupt, and money procuring impunity for almost any fault. Criminal offences, however, are rare in Tonquin, notwithstanding the disorder which is consequent on the long continuance of civil war; and it is computed that, out of the whole population, not more than twenty or thirty persons fall in the course of a year by the hand of justice.

'The pressure of taxation is equally felt here as in Europe, and may be divided into four kinds of impost; capitation-tax, land-tax, labour on public works, and military service. The capitation-tax is nearly a dollar a year, and applies to all males who are not in the service of the crown; among the females it is payable by widows. The tax is imposed by government, without distinction as to differences of individual property: but attention is paid to this in the repartition which is afterward made by the district-officers. The liability to military service lasts from the age of eighteen to that of fifty. On foreign commerce the chief burden is ten per cent. on importation, exportation being free.

'In regard to the mode of warfare, a considerable change has occurred of late years in consequence of the imitation of European habits. In former times, fire-arms were little known; and the elephants, being accounted irresistible, generally decided the fortune of the day: but the use of cannon has given the power of putting these formidable animals to flight, and of turning them against the ranks of their employers. They are now chiefly used for the conveyance of baggage and warlike stores. The Tonquinese army is composed entirely of infantry, horses being used only for the purpose of carrying expresses, or for the personal accommodation of the Mandarins. The number of soldiers amounted in 1806 (a season of peace) to 150,000, and they were divided into six armies. Their weapons consist of musquets, bayonets, sabres, pikes, hatchets, and clubs; the use of match-locks having been superseded by that of musquets. In the latter part of the recent civil wars, flying-artillery was brought into action with prodigious success, the natives declaring it to be thunder guided by the bridle. The Tonquinese seamen may be termed soldiers serving on ship-board, their arms being the same with those of the military, except that their lances are longer. The art of seamanship is wholly unknown both to officers and privates.'

Religion.—The religion of Tonquin owes its origin to that of China, and recognizes a plurality of gods. It admits also the comfortable notion that men of distinguished virtue may become the associates, though in a subordinate rank, of celestial power. The forests, mountains, and plains are considered to be peopled with Genii, who possess an influence on human affairs. The Tonquinese are believers in a future state of reward and punishment, but without any conception of eternity. They assign a definite period to the operation of the decrees of Providence: their notion of future happiness consists in the enjoyment of a delightful climate and a fragrant atmosphere; a throne of odoriferous flowers in heaven being, in their ideas, the reward of the just. The temples are very different in their degrees of splendour, according to the pecuniary means of the district in which they are situated. One of the most singular parts of their religious service is the worship of their ancestors; whom they consider as divinities of the second class, the guardians and protectors of those on earth who have descended from them. The lower ranks believe that the souls of their ancestors reside in the *Penates*, or tablets, preserved in the dwellings of their descendants; and the higher ranks, without going the length of a belief of actual residence, are persuaded of the existence of a sympathy between the dead and the living, and look on the odour of a newly killed victim as a kind of nourishment which is grateful to their forefathers:

'The *Bonzes* are the ministers of public worship at the altars, but they can hardly be compared to our priests; possessing no spiritual authority, and being confined in their functions to outward ceremonies. They sing, preach, and perform sacrifices, but are not subjected to any particular restraints in private, and are allowed to marry; differing in these respects from another class of their fraternity, who live in retirement, in a state of celibacy, and in the observance of fasts. It belongs to this part of our subject to mention that magic and fortune-telling are greatly in vogue in Tonquin; a particular class of impostors continuing to practise it, notwithstanding the prohibition of government. The superstitious credulity of the Tonquinese knows no bounds; the flight and singing of birds are carefully watched as omens; a fowl crowing like a cock, or a dog creeping along on two legs, are accounted signals of misfortune, and are devoted to speedy death. If, on going out in the morning, the first person met is a woman, the omen is bad; if a man, the reverse: but if the person met happens to sneeze, the prognostication is deemed so serious as to make an immediate return to the house advisable.'

The last example of credulity is the more remarkable, as among many nations sneezing has been accounted a favourable omen. The Dutch of the present day have a current proverb to that effect; and, if the recollections of our youthful studies be correct, the case was the same in the age of Ulysses.

While the bulk of the Tonquinese nation is thus sunken in superstition and polytheism, the civil Mandarins, and other leading men in the state, despise the credulity of their countrymen, and adhere to the creed of Confucius. This enlightened Chinese taught the existence of one supreme Being; that human reason emanated from him; that the law of religion should prescribe nothing beyond a conformity to the law of nature and to the dictates of the understanding; and that our duty consists in attaining a knowlege of ourselves, in learning to discriminate things lawful from things unlawful, and in setting a good example to our fellow creatures. The followers of Confucius adore God, but have no outward ceremonial, no altars, nor sacrifices. Their worship of the Deity consists in secret meditation: but to Confucius they erect temples and make sacrifices, considering him as a being superior to the race of man, and praying to him to vouchsafe to them the information which is requisite to understand his sacred books. They join their countrymen in the practice of sacrificing to their ancestors, but without looking on the act in any other light than as a testimony of filial veneration. It is to the temples of Confucius alone that the Tonquinese government contributes; the expence of the other is borne by the respective districts.

Our readers will learn with satisfaction that Christianity has made some progress in this populous but hitherto little known empire. So long ago as the 16th century, the Portuguese made a beginning in this respect in Cochin-China; and in the 17th, Louis XIV. contrived to introduce into that country some missionaries from the seminary at Paris. During the 18th century, the treatment of Christians in Tonquin underwent various changes: but in general it was unfavourable, and at several times persecutions took place. The present sovereign, however, is disposed to toleration; and since the year 1790, the Christians, though not protected by government, have not had reason to complain. The chief obstacles to the propagation of Christianity are, on the part of government, an apprehension that political views are at the bottom of the zeal of the missionaries; and on that of the people the renunciation of polygamy, a sacrifice which it strictly requires. Notwithstanding these difficulties, it is computed that nearly 400,000 Christians exist in Tonquin and Cochin-China, and no class of the inhabitants is more distinguished for probity of conduct. Of the difficulty attendant on the propagation of Christianity, particularly in the uncultivated part of the empire, some idea may be formed from the following document:

'Letter from Monsieur Grillet, a missionary, dated Cochin-China, 4th August 1793.

"I was sent two years ago, with Monsieur Le Blanc, among a savage people to the north-east of Cochin-China, in order to open to these poor creatures the way to salvation, but sickness prevented us from doing any thing. My colleague fell a victim to it, and I continued ill during six or seven months. These unfortunate people have scarcely any fault, except an almost incurable stupidity; they inhabit mountains and inaccessible forests, are few in number, without leaders, and appear little attached to any superstition. They have no fixed residence; and after having remained a year or two in one place, they remove to another. Their principal food is rice, which is taken from a common hoard every morning, and boiled by the women, while the men hunt down the mountain-rats, which are their favourite article of diet. They are very dextrous in the use of the bow and arrow; and on killing game they share it among each other. Their life is a very indolent one: they are inquisitive and covetous about nothing, and go almost in a state of nudity. Polygamy does not exist among them; each of their residences consists of only one long house, divided into as many cells as there are chiefs; they cultivate the ground and reap the harvest in common.—If we are enabled by Providence to open this mission, the propagation of religion is likely to meet with fewer obstacles here than elsewhere. What an affecting sight it is to see these poor creatures run forwards to meet us, and conjure us, with tears in their eyes, to remain among them, to instruct them, and to make them men like us. For my part I am determined, if I am permitted, to make a fresh attempt for their conversion, were I even to lose my life in the cause."'

Moral Qualities.—In describing the moral character of the Tonquinese, the author has used that warmth of colouring which may be remarked in various parts of the book. Charity, he informs us, is so established a virtue among them, that the distressed are accounted the creditors of the affluent, and the mere circumstance of needing assistance is considered as conferring a right to it. Their common proverb is, "*Nature is*

liberal,

liberal; let us imitate her;" and a friend makes as free with the property of his friend as with his own. The women are under no particular restraint, being allowed to pay visits by themselves; yet they are seldom known to abuse this indulgence, or to neglect their own affairs for the sake of mixing in society. Neither beauty nor fortune, according to the author, is a predominating attraction to a matrimonial connection among the Tonquinese; health of constitution, and suavity of temper, being accounted more powerful recommendations. The existence of unnatural vices is unknown in this country, and the barbarous practice of having eunuchs at court has also been disused during the present reign. In their intercourse with Europeans, the Tonquinese are much more accommodating and communicative than the Asiatics in general; and they have been called, from their gaiety and talkativeness, the Frenchmen of the East. They are highly loyal, and unwilling to impute any blame to their sovereign. These favourable qualities, however, are tarnished, as the writer acknowleges, by several vices. Indolence is a predominant feature in their character; and in making any remarkable exertion, the grand inducement is the prospect of a long repose: but a more repulsive vice, that of gluttony, must likewise be admitted into the catalogue of their demerits. In their public feasts, they eat not only beyond all bounds of moderation, but are accustomed to pocket and carry home what they cannot consume. The pleasure of eating seems to pervade all their feelings: the kitchen is accounted the best room in the house; and their household gods are called the divinities of that interesting department. The higher the rank of a guest, the larger is the portion of victuals placed before him. The common method of shewing regard for a friend is to ask how many plates of rice he can consume at dinner; and, by a singular abuse of figurative language, the verb "to eat" is applied to any act that is performed with ardour: the Tonquinese being accustomed to use such extraordinary expressions as "to eat a robbery," "to eat a market," and even (vol. i. p. 103.) "to eat a fine woman." — The next fault in the character of this nation is common to them with others in a much more advanced state; viz. an inordinate love of distinction, the consequence of which is abject acquiescence towards superiors, and domineering conduct to inferiors. One of the most effectual methods of raising the national character from its degradation would be to make a gradual abolition of corporeal punishment, the maintenance of which forms another feature of resemblance between the Tonquinese and their northern progenitors *.

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* See our review of the Laws of China, Vol. lxiv. p. 119.

The hatred of the inhabitants of Tonquin for those of China is not inferior to the hereditary animosity of our own countrymen, or of the Spaniards, towards our Gallic neighbours. Our estimate of the manners of the Tonquinese, however, must not be formed on general description; a difference of situation often leading to remarkable differences of character. So much depends on the conduct and disposition of the local government, that, while in some quarters the property of the traveller is in perfect safety, in others the case is very different; in some provinces sexual irregularities are not very unfrequent, while in others a single instance of the kind would be a phænomenon. In some populous cantons, indeed, such is the character of the people and government, that a murder has not been committed in the memory of man.

‘ It is the custom of the Tonquinese of both sexes to permit their long dark hair to flow loose over their shoulders. A more unseemly practice is that of letting their beard and nails continue to grow. Their mode of sitting is cross-legged on the ground. They use no chairs, cushions, nor stools; mats among the lower orders, and carpets among the higher, serving the purpose of seats. Their beds are made of mats, and their pillows consist of reeds woven together: but, in other respects, their apartments are without furniture. Persons in easy circumstances travel in palanquins. — Their mode of saluting a superior is not, as with us, a mere inclination of the head, but a prostration almost to the ground. The morning is the time for visits, and also for an audience of the Emperor, whose levee begins at six o'clock and lasts two hours. It is a rule in Tonquin, as throughout the East in general, on visiting a superior, to offer him a present, were it merely fruit or other things of little value; always observing that, in making presents to persons of different stations, the value must be in proportion to the rank. Good-breeding forbids a superior to take any notice of the furniture or jewels in a house which he may visit, because the party complimented would feel himself bound to send them to him the next day. — It is not the custom for females to be present at public entertainments.

‘ Of all the public ceremonies in Tonquin, the most solemn and most expensive are their burials. The great object of ambition with many individuals, during life, is to save what will supply a fund for a magnificent display on that occasion; and it is common to have a sale of the property of the deceased, in order to make up the necessary amount. A superb interment is a point of the greatest consequence to the honour of a family, and is sometimes the topic of conversation and praise after the lapse of half a century. To afford time for these extraordinary arrangements, it is often necessary to delay the interment and keep the body above ground; and among the great, this is sometimes the case for the space of twelve months, without being productive of any inconvenience, the coffin being of very thick wood, and hermetically sealed. The Tonquinese are very particular about the place of interment; and it would be both a disgrace and a calamity to a family if any encroachment on it were made; the deceased would be supposed to have lost the power of exerting himself for the benefit of his relations. The funerals of grandees are conducted with incredible pomp and expence. At that of the Emperor, the army, the elephants, and the galleys, are all employed; money and victuals are scattered with profusion; and enormous sums are buried with the body. The mourning dress of the Tonquinese is white, and their long hair is so far cut as not to overhang the shoulders.'

Language and Education.—The language of Tonquin is derived, like other things, from China: but the distance and separation of the two states have so much altered their pronunciation, that the natives of the two countries no longer understand each other. The Tonquinese tongue has no terminations for gender, number, or tense, the distinctions being marked by particles. Most of the words are monosyllables, and inflexions in sentences are little known. Like our own language, the Tonquinese ascribes gender only to animated beings. Its vocabulary is rich in regard to those things with which the natives are conversant, as the products of the ground, and the names of aquatic animals, but barren with respect to such topics as mechanics or the fine arts. An European finds it much more easy to establish an oral communication with a Tonquinese than a Chinese, whether it be that the former has a greater promptitude in understanding signs, or that the Tonquinese pronunciation is less difficult of acquisition; for it is a remarkable fact that an European is more successful than a Chinese in learning the language of this country. The manner of writing it is the same as that of writing the Chinese; that is, the signs express words instead of letters, and are consequently calculated to amount to the number of 80,000. It follows that few persons are qualified to read or write; and their men of letters are subjected to a long and painful drudgery, before they acquire a familiarity with this vast catalogue. The fashion of penmanship is the same in Tonquin as in China, being neither from left to right as among us, nor from right to left as with the Orientals, but from top to bottom. The European missionaries are endeavouring to introduce into Tonquin the use of our alphabet, with some slight modifications.

The subject on which the Tonquinese have written most largely is medicine; following, however, in this as in other branches of literature, the works of the Chinese as their models. The department of the healing art which they understand best is the cure of diseases by the application of plants, the efficacy of which in this country is prodigious. They are well acquainted with botany: to bleeding they seldom have recourse; and when they do, the operation takes place in the forehead: but their favourite remedy is a partial burning of the skin, similar to the old European process, called (from the substance applied) *moxa*; a process which is still practised in some parts of Africa. Aromatic herbs are the materials used for burning in Tonquin, and great pains are taken to ascertain the spot on which, according to their creed, the caustic application ought to take place. This is generally at some distance from the seat of the complaint; suppuration is the consequence of this process; and its effect is sometimes an extraordinary cure, at other times an aggravation of the disorder.—The backward state of learning in Tonquin must be laid to the charge of their unfortunate alphabet, and the effects of despotism in former ages, rather than to the present government; for no where is learning more honoured and protected. Public schools are instituted for teaching morality, rhetoric, agriculture, and tactics; and important privileges are attached to the condition of student and doctor in literature. The style of composition in this country is grave, and free from exaggeration; though, like other rude nations, the Tonquinese have been more successful in poetry than in prose.

The history of Tonquin occupies a considerable part of the second volume; and the author, partial to a country which has engaged so much of his labour, bestows on its early legends a degree of attention to which, in our opinion, they are little intitled; in which predilection towards the object of his researches, we cannot help remarking a resemblance between him and the distinguished translator of the Laws of China, whose work was reviewed in our February Number.—It is now time to bring to a conclusion our analysis of his labours, which we have been induced to extend to extraordinary length from a sense both of the novelty of his information, and of the tone of candour and liberality in which it is conveyed. These recommendations make the work constitute a valuable addition to our store of Asiatic authorities: but the more highly we are disposed to estimate it in this respect, the more do we regret that the mode of constructing the edifice should not have corresponded with the value of the materials. Various circumstances concur to strengthen our suspicion that the book has been put together in haste, and committed to the press before adequate pains were taken to read the whole of the MS. in continuation. The frequency of repetitions, the occasional occurrence of contradiction, the inequality of the size of the volumes, (the second being hardly more than one-third of the first,) and the position of the table of contents at the end instead of the beginning, are all evidences of default in the necessary though unpleasant task of revision and castigation. To the same cause must be attributed incidental exuberances of matter as well as of style; we allude to enumerations, such as in the natural history of the elephant, of circumstances which are already well known to men of education. Of the author's talent for original reflection, the chief examples are to be found in the introductory observations on the several divisions of the work; and while we allow him the merit of liberal disposition and powerful comprehension, we must be cautious in paying a tribute of approbation to the accuracy of his conclusions. In support of this negative opinion, we need go no farther than the passage in which (Vol. ii. p. 87.) he enlarges on climate as a cause of great efficacy in the formation of national character. After these deductions, however, a decided balance of merit will be found to remain in the appreciation of this performance; and we perceive with satisfaction that it already bids fair to engage the attention of the readers of publications on oriental subjects.

Art. III. *Psyche, with other Poems.* By the late Mrs. Henry Tighe. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

It has been our pleasing task, on several late occasions, to notice the distinguished literary abilities of our fair countrywomen [*]; and assured as we are that, among the causes of the prosperity and honour of a nation, the character of its females ought principally to be considered, we must be excused for repeatedly rejoicing at such unequivocal symptoms of the exaltation of that character in our empire. We cannot, indeed, be too often reminded that the natural consequence of an increase of knowlege is an accession of moral as well as of intellectual strength; and, although this wholesome effect be occasionally frustrated by a wilful perversion of the best means of improvement, — although the stores of the imagination have sometimes been disgracefully applied to the pollution of the heart, — yet is not the general correctness of the maxim affected by these deplorable exceptions. Nor have we, in modern times at least, and in our own country, to lament the unnatural union of depraved morals and cultivated talents, in more than one or two females; though we may blush to own that the degrading phænomenon has more frequently appeared among the men. To judge, however, of the soundness of the position, which we seize every opportunity of laying down, we must follow the only method which can lead to the establishment of any important and extensive truth: we must collect as many facts as the subject affords; and we must cast our eyes over the comparative state of those countries in which the condition of the women is elevated or depressed. Pursuing the path, in a word, so admirably chalked out by a recent female writer *, we must trace in antient and in later ages the correspondent vigour and renown of nations with the moral excellence of their women; and we must see the general glory, and this large constituent part of it, decline together. We shall be satisfied, at present, with referring to our critique on the work in question, in the M. R. for April last; and to our remarks on the posthumous volumes of another most accomplished female †. Over her early tomb we presumed to entwine a perishable garland; and we are now again called to add to the recorded honours, which are gathering round the monument of beauty and of genius.

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[*] See also the first article in this Review.

The fair writer of 'Psyche, or the Legend of Love,' after six years of protracted malady, expired on the 24th of March 1810, in the 37th year of her age. This simple statement is sufficient to excite all the interest in the fate of that author which we could desire; and we shall not, we think, be suspected of a disposition to exaggerated panegyric, when our readers have perused the extracts which we shall transcribe from her beautiful poem, although we should assert that for elegance of design and accuracy of execution it much exceeds any poetical composition of the present day. We are so often compelled to deplore the want of a corrected taste among our contemporary writers of acknowleged genius, that, when we see these sister-qualities united in one extraordinary mind, we must be allowed to indulge in unusual congratulation to the country which has produced so rare an example. — Having proposed to herself the noble model of Spenser's versification, but having judiciously avoided all his antiquated phraseology, our poetess has composed a work which is calculated to endure the judgment of posterity, long after the possessors of an ephemeral popularity shall have faded away into a well-merited oblivion. While the hearts of our countrymen shall beat at the sweetest sounds of their native language, conveying, as nature dictates, the feelings of the purest passions, so long shall this tale of Psyche dwell on their ears, and they shall think the angel still is speaking!

"*Castos docet et pios amores!*" is the appropriate motto prefixed to this 'Legend of Love:' but we should not render justice to the author, if we omitted to insert a quotation from her preface *, in which she apologizes for her selection of the subject. Although the apology, strictly speaking, be perfectly unnecessary, (from the exquisitely delicate manner in which she has treated that subject,) yet, as a tribute to female timidity, it was natural; and we own ourselves pleased to witness so engaging an example of frankness and modesty combined, as that which the following passage exhibits:

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* See the Epistles on the Character of Women, by Miss Aikin.

† See Miss Smith's Fragments; *M. R. for January last.*

> ' In making choice of the beautiful ancient allegory of Love and the Soul, I had some fears lest my subject might be condemned by the frown of severer moralists; however, I hope that if such have the condescension to read through a poem which they may perhaps think too long, they will yet do me the justice to allow, that I have only pictured innocent love, such love as the purest bosom might confess. " Les jeunes femmes, qui ne veulent point paroitre coquettes, ne doivent jamais parler de l'amour comme d'une chose ou elles puissent avoir part," says La Rochefoucault; but I believe it is only the false refinement of the most profligate court which could give birth to such a sentiment, and that love will always be found to have had the strongest influence where the morals have been the purest.'

Who can differ from the foregoing sentiment? We wish that it were equally possible to anticipate the acquiescence of our readers in the apology subsequently offered for the allegorical texture of the story. That story, in our opinion, is very interesting, and not the less for the moral and instructive allegory which it so slightly yet elegantly veils: but on this subject we shall not dispute: it is obviously and entirely such a matter of taste, as cannot be decided by any criterion of judgment. If the competent reader of Psyche be gratified, and feel no drawback in his pleasure from the allegory, (we state it at the lowest,) what becomes of the argument of the objector? If otherwise, what avails the defence of the advocate? To us the fair writer appears

" *Simul et jucunda et idonea dicere vitæ*;"—

and, without extending our prolegomena, we shall advance to the developement of her plan, and to the justification of our praise.

' The loves of Cupid and Psyche,' says the author, ' have long been a favourite subject for poetical allusion, and are well known as related by Apuleius: to him I am indebted for the outline of my tale in the two first cantos; but even there the model is not closely copied, and I have taken nothing from Moliere, La Fontaine, Du Moustier, or Marino. I have seen no imitation of Apuleius except by those authors; nor do I know that the story of Psyche has any other original.'—In pursuing the course of her allegorical tale, the writer would have derived (according to our conception of the subject) much assistance from the ingenious hypothesis concerning this Platonic reverie of Apuleius, which is to be found in Warburton's "Divine Legation:" but, as an attempt to support our notions relative to this hypothesis would lead us too far from our purpose, we shall be contented with the hint which we have thrown out; and though we are persuaded that the poem before us would have benefited considerably, in its sublimer passages, by reference to the digression in question, let us proceed to consider it in the attractive dress which it already wears.

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* This preface was given in the copies of *Psyche*, which were printed, but not published, in 1805.

After an introduction, of short extent, but replete with those beautiful common-places which constitute a principal charm of poetry, and which occur in every canto of Psyche, we are introduced to the heroine. She is faint and weary with long and solitary wanderings through 'untrodden forests,' and rests, at length, in 'a woodland shade' of uncommon beauty; laying herself down, exhausted, and desolate of heart.

'Oh! how refreshing seemed the breathing wind
To her faint limbs! and while her snowy hands
From her fair brow her golden hair unbind,
And of her zone unloose the silken bands,
More passing bright unveiled her beauty stands;
For faultless was her form as beauty's queen,
And every winning grace that Love demands,
With mild attempered dignity was seen
Play o'er each lovely limb, and deck her angel mien.'

Yet, although so wretched now, the maid was of royal origin, nay, was the rival of the Queen of Beauty herself, and had innocently and unwittingly extorted from the erring crowd those divine honours

'Which, Goddess! are thy due, and should be only thine.'

Cytherea, indignant at this impious neglect, calls her son 'with unaccustomed voice;' and complaining of the insults which she has received, she commands him to seek the fountains of Joy and Sorrow in the Island of Pleasure, and there prepare the means of her revenge. The obedient son of Beauty fulfils her instructions, and, hastening to the chamber of the sleeping Psyche, drops on her lips the fatal dew of grief: but, as he wounds her gently with his dart, he is so conquered by her charms as inadvertently to wound himself also, and is anxious to repair the mischief which he has effected:

'He shed in haste the balmy drops of joy
O'er all the silky ringlets of her hair;
Then stretched his plumes divine, and breathed celestial ai

Psyche catches a sort of half-entranced view of his retre
figure; and thrilled with an extasy unknown before, yet
tated by restless anxiety, she reveals her dream ('nor w
quite a dream!') to her mother. The oracle is consulted
Psyche is abandoned on a rock by its decree. Thence she is
veyed by Zephyrs to the Island of Pleasure. The palace,
the banquet of Love, with the marriage of Cupid and Psy
are successively described; and the happiness of the latt
clouded only by the invisibility of her lover, and by his c
nual absence from her, "from dawn to dewy eve." — Sh
quests his permission to revisit her father and mother, an
assure them of her safety and delight. He relunctantly
sents; and thus ends the first canto.

We could extract several stanzas of great excellence,
sidered as speciments of descriptive poetry, from this ca
but, though the taste of the age has evidently a bias tow
this species of composition, and the present writer, we t
excels all her competitors in this their favourite departm
yet, as she possesses talents of a far superior nature, we
only offer a few proofs of her minor qualifications. Le
take, for example, the following sketch of the Islanc
Pleasure:

'Mid the blue waves by circling seas embraced nature, and how true to delicacy, are the touches also of the following address:

'Oh, you for whom I write! whose hearts can melt
At the soft thrilling voice whose power you prove,
You know what charm, unutterably felt,
Attends the unexpected voice of Love:
Above the lyre, the lute's soft notes above,
With sweet enchantment to the soul it steals
And bears it to Elysium's happy grove;
You best can tell the rapture Psyche feels
When Love's ambrosial lip the vows of Hymen seals.'

As well understood by the poet will the following passage be, as the preceding must have been warmly felt by the lover:

'To charm the languid hours of solitude
He oft invites her to the Muse's lore,
For none have vainly e'er the Muse pursued,
And those whom she delights, regret no more
The social, joyous hours, while rapt they soar
To worlds unknown, and live in Fancy's dreams:
Oh Muse divine! thee only I implore,
Shed on my soul thy sweet inspiring beams,
And pleasure's gayest scene insipid folly seems!

'Silence and solitude the Muses love,
And whom they charm they can alone suffice;
Nor ever tedious hour their votaries prove:
This solace now the lonely Psyche tries,
Or, while her hand the curious needle plies,
She learns from lips unseen celestial strains;
Responsive now with their soft voice she vies,
Or bids her plaintive harp express the pains
Which absence sore inflicts where Love all potent reigns.'

The 2d canto opens with an affecting appeal to the innocent, advising them not to wish for the world and its destructive pleasures. Yet so natural is Psyche's joy at her return to her native roof, that we pity her desertion of heavenly tranquillity, with no mixture of contempt; while the affection of her parents, and the envy of her sisters, add a variety and a fresh interest to the scene. — But now we tremble at the impending ruin of our gentle heroine. She is persuaded by the malicious insinuations of her sisters to suspect her lover; and yet, unknowing why, she doubts and confides at once! How admirably a mistress of the secret springs of passion must she have been, who could have thus drawn the veil over a scene previously worked up to the highest pitch of interest:

'While yet irresolute with sad surprise,
Mid doubt and love she stands in strange suspense,

Lo! gliding from her sisters wondering eyes
Returning Zephyrs gently bear her thence;
Lost all her hopes, her joys, her confidence,
Back to the earth her mournful eyes she threw,
As if imploring pity and defence;
While bathed in tears her golden tresses flew,
As in the breeze dispersed they caught the precious dew.'

Psyche now unhappily performs the injunctions of malignity, conceals the fatal lamp, and disobeys the commands of her lover. The description of Cupid asleep is most elegantly finished: but the sudden and terrible change of all the realm of pleasure, to desolation, waste, and sadness, calls forth the nobler powers of the author; and, after a display of animation, vigour, and originality, in the rapid picture of a most striking situation, she gently melts into a pathetic tenderness of which we know not a parralel:

'The mists of morn yet chill the gloomy air,
And heavily obscure the clouded skies;
In the mute anguish of a fixed despair
Still on the ground immoveable she lies;
At length, with lifted hands and streaming eyes,
Her mournful prayers invoke offended Love,
"Oh, let me hear thy voice once more," she cries,
"In death at least thy pity let me move,
"And death, if but forgiven, a kind relief will prove.

' "For what can life to thy lost Psyche give,
"What can it offer but a gloomy void?
"Why thus abandoned should I wish to live?
"To mourn the pleasure which I once enjoyed,
"The bliss my own rash folly hath destroyed;
"Of all my soul most prized, or held most dear,
"Nought but the sad remembrance doth abide,
"And late repentance of my impious fear;
"Remorse and vain regret what living soul can bear!

' "Oh, art thou then indeed for ever gone!
"And art thou heedless of thy Psyche's woe!
"From these fond arms for ever art thou flown,
"And unregarded must my sorrows flow!
"Ah! why too happy did I ever know
"The rapturous charms thy tenderness inspires?
"Ah! why did thy affections stoop so low?
"Why kindle in a mortal breast such fires,
"Or with celestial love inflame such rash desires?

' "Abandoned thus for ever by thy love,
"No greater punishment I now can bear,
"From fate no farther malice can I prove;
"Not all the horrors of this desert drear,

"Nor death itself can now excite a fear;
"The peopled earth a solitude as vast
"To this despairing heart would now appear;
"Here then, my transient joys for ever past,
Let thine expiring bride thy pardon gain at last!"

'Now prostrate on the bare unfriendly ground,
She waits her doom in silent agony;
When lo! the well known soft celestial sound
She hears once more with breathless ecstasy,
"Oh! yet too dearly loved! Lost Psyche! Why
"With cruel fate wouldst thou unite thy power,
"And force me thus thine arms adored to fly?
"Yet cheer thy drooping soul, some happier hour
"Thy banished steps may lead back to thy lover's bower.

"Though angry Venus we no more can shun,
"Appease that anger and I yet am thine!
"Lo! where her temple glitters to the sun;
"With humble penitence approach her shrine,
"Perhaps to pity she may yet incline;
"But should her cruel wrath these hopes deceive,
"And thou, alas! must never more be mine,
"Yet shall thy lover ne'er his Psyche leave,
"But, if the fates allow, unseen thy woes relieve.

'"Stronger than I, they now forbid my stay;
"Psyche beloved, adieu!" Scarce can she hear
The last faint words, which gently melt away;
And now more faint the dying sounds appear,
Borne to a distance from her longing ear;
Yet still attentively she stands unmoved,
To catch those accents which her soul could cheer,
That soothing voice which had so sweetly proved
That still his tender heart offending Psyche loved!'

We have thus endeavoured to give our readers some idea (inadequate as it must be) of the merits of Psyche. So large a space has necessarily been occupied by our remarks and citations, even in so early a part of the volume, that we shall only offer a brief analysis of the contents of each remaining canto; and, consistently with our desire of establishing the high character of this poem on a secure foundation, (as far as we can hope to contribute to such an object), we shall then devote such room as we can afford to extracts from those beautiul common-places which we have previously commended, and o the notice of such errors as, in our judgment, disfigure any ages of so generally correct a composition.

Psyche approaches the Temple of Venus, as directed by upid. She is driven from it by an aged priest: but, when e has retired to an awful distance, she is comforted by the holy man, and assured of the ultimate forgiveness of the Goddess on certain conditions. She is adjudged to wander over the earth till she has raised an altar to the offended deity,

> 'Where perfect happiness, in lonely state,
> Has fixed her temple in secluded bower,
> By foot impure of man untrodden to this hour.'

She despairs of attaining this blessed seat of tranquillity, these—

> " *Vaghi colli, ameni prati,*
> *Di Riposo Alberghi veri !*"

where she is to forget all her sorrows;—when lo!

> 'Sent by the hand of Love a turtle flies,'

and, as the emblem of Innocence, precedes and directs her path. She arrives at length, conducted by this unerring guide, at the 'woodland shade' which we commemorated before; and here the poem, at the end of the 2d canto, returns to its *ex post facto* beginning in the first; so far violating the admirable rule of the French,—" *Commencez par le commencement.*"

In the 3d canto, a champion, in complete mail, meets the wandering fair-one. He is attended by a page, named Constance, and assumes the command of Passion, who appears as a Lion. Psyche then proceeds under the protection of her champion. She is persuaded to repose in the bower of Loose Delight: but, after a safe escape, she is led by Innocence to Retirement. She encounters Vanity and Flattery, and is exposed by them to the power of Ambition. Her Knight rescues her.

Canto IV. Psyche is benighted, and meets with Credulity, the prey of the 'Blatant Beast,' or Slander. The Knight is wounded in a contest with the latter, but puts her to flight. Credulity leads Psyche to the castle of Suspicion. Here we may observe, *en passant*, that a little confusion occurs in the allegory; and that the qualities of Suspicion and Credulity, which, when put in action, must often be identified, are rather unintelligibly interchanged. Yet although in this, and one or two other instances, the author has been embarrassed by her double design of relating a literal and a figurative story, yet on the whole we know no allegory which has been so clearly conducted through an equal extent of fable. — To resume: Psyche, deluded by Suspicion, or Credulity, laments the desertion of her Knight to the train of Inconstancy. She is betrayed into the power of Jealousy, who persuades her that her Knight, by whom she was then abandoned, was Love himself. (This also, by the way, is rather indistinct; for had she not previously known her Knight to be Love, would she have been jealous of him? — and, to get rid of these trifling objections at once, we may just remark that the name of Geloso suggests Ridicule rather than Jealousy to a classical ear, and that Disfida is a barbarous compound.) Psyche is again delivered by her Knight; and a reconciliation takes place between them.

In the Vth canto our heroine beholds the palace of Chastity. She pleads for the admission of her Knight, and obtains it through the intervention of Hymen. A hymn is introduced, celebrating the triumphs of Chastity;—(of this, we shall speak presently;) and, enraptured with the strain, Psyche desires to devote herself wholly to the service of that Queen, by whom she is intrusted to the continued guidance of the Knight. They are wrecked by a tempest in a voyage which they now take, and are thrown on the coast of Spleen. Psyche is received and sheltered by Patience.

In the VIth and last canto, the heroine is becalmed in prosecuting her voyage, surprized, and carried to the island of Indifference: she is pursued, and finally rescued by her Knight. The voyage is concluded; and Psyche, brought home to the Island of Pleasure, beholds again the Temple of Love; is re-united to her lover, who, we need not say, is her faithful Knight; and is invited by Venus to receive her apotheosis in heaven.

Such is the story of Psyche; of which the author thus farther speaks, with exemplary modesty, in her preface:

> 'I much regret that I can have no hope of affording any pleasure to some, whose opinion I highly respect, whom I have heard profess themselves ever disgusted by the veiled form of allegory, and yet
>
> Are not the choicest fables of the poets,
> Who were the fountains and first springs of wisdom,
> Wrapt in perplexed allegories?
>
> 'But if I have not been able to resist the seductions of the mysterious fair, who perhaps never appears captivating except in the eyes of her own poet, I have however remembered that my verse cannot be worth much consideration, and have therefore endeavoured to let my meaning be perfectly obvious. The same reason has deterred me from using the obsolete words which are to be found in Spenser and his imitators.
>
> 'Although I cannot give up the excellence of my subject, I am yet ready to own that the stanza which I have chosen has many disadvantages, and that it may, perhaps, be as tiresome to the reader as it was difficult to the author. The frequent recurrence of the same rhymes is by no means well adapted to the English language; and I know not whether I have a right to offer as an apology the restraint which I had imposed upon myself, of strictly adhering to the stanza which my partiality for Spenser first inclined me to adopt.'

So far from thinking that the stanza, as managed by this writer, is tiresome, we are delighted with the variety and beauty of its construction. If it was indeed difficult to her in the composition, we can only say that she has completely concealed that difficulty; and that she has added another example to the scanty list of writers whose works, from the apparent facility of their execution, flatter their imitators with the hopes of arriving at an unattainable excellence:

> "*facile ut sibi quivis*
> *Speret idem: sudet multum, frustraque laboret*
> *Ausus idem.*"

We proceed to fulfil the less agreeable part of our task, but which will not detain us long.—Idleness has seldom produced inaccuracy in this poem; and bad taste, we think, is still more rarely to be detected.

> 'She laid her down, and piteously bethought
> *Herself* on the sad changes of her fate'—page 11.

is a blemish which might easily have been avoided, and is therefore deserving of censure. Of the same stamp are the following passages.

> ——'The angry blast which sweeps along
> Sparing the lovely *trembler*, while the strong
> Majestic tenants of the leafless wood
> It levels low,'—page 13.

is a bombastic description of a snowdrop escaping from the force of the wind.

> 'For sweet refreshment all inviting seems
> To taste celestial food, and pure ambrosial streams,' page 13.

is, to us, unintelligible. The word 'undistanced,' page 130. we believe is of no authority; and, in page 131., two immediately successive stanzas end with the *easy* rhymes of 'attentively' and 'sigh;'—'eye' and 'mystery.'—Page 134. has the barbarism of '*had strove*,' and it occurs again, subsequently. The 'Hymn to Chastity,' in page 157., is to our apprehension one of the rare instances of false taste in the volume. It is crowded with stale classical allusions, and drest out in all the moth-eaten finery of the mythological wardrobe. We have Bellerophon, and Peleus, and Hippolytus; and the '*daring spring*' of Dictynna; and the 'trembling flight' of Arethusa; and Daphne, and Syringa; not to mention the 'true histories' of Clusia, and Clelia, and Sulpicia, and Lucretia, and Virginia,

> "*Cum multis aliis*, quas *nunc perscribere longum est.*'

> 'To be received in Castabella's train.'—page 164.

is a flat and prosaic line, which has few parallels in the poem: but

> 'And torture the too susceptible mind,' p. 116.

is still worse ;—and in the same stanza,

'Lest *he she* loved, unmindful or unkind,'

is not much better. In page 193. the coldness with which Indifference hears the voice of Affection is compared to the impassibility (if we may here be allowed the term) of an 'oiled surface,' over which a stream of water glides, without a drop gaining admission. The expression 'oiled surface' is objectionable in the simile, because it irresistibly suggests an oil-case for the hat in a rainy day, and destroys the effect of a comparison which, if the substance to which Indifference is compared had been judiciously chosen and specified, might have produced a very pleasing effect.

We had marked a much more numerous list of faults in the shorter poems subjoined to 'Psyche :' but a passage in the advertisement of the editor has induced us to omit our intended criticisms.' 'These poems,' he says, 'may perhaps stand in need of that indulgence which a posthumous work always demands, when it did not receive the correction of the author. They have been selected from a larger number of poems, which were the occasional effusion of her thoughts, or productions of her leisure, but not originally intended or pointed out by herself for publication.' We deem it equitable, therefore, to pass over such blemishes as we think we have discovered in these compositions ; and, for the sake of perfect impartiality, we shall also be silent on the beauties which they certainly contain.

To return to Psyche ; and to the completion of our critique. —We have now to lay before our readers some of those passages in which this pathetic writer has spoken to the hearts of all her feeling readers :

'Oh ! have you never known the silent charm
That undisturbed retirement yields the soul,
Where no intruder might your peace alarm,
And tenderness hath wept without control,
While melting fondness o'er the bosom stole ?
Did fancy never, in some lonely grove,
Abridge the hours which must in absence roll ?
Those pensive pleasures did you never prove,
Oh ! you have never loved ! you know not what is love !

'They do not love who can to these prefer
The tumult of the gay, or folly's roar ;
The Muse they know not ; nor delight in her
Who can the troubled soul to rest restore,
Calm contemplation : Yes, I must deplore
Their joyless state, even more than his who mourns
His love for ever lost ; delight no more

Unto his widowed heart indeed returns,
Yet, while he weeps, his soul their cold indifference spurns.

'But if soft hope illumines fancy's dream,
Assuring him of love and constancy,
How exquisite do then the moments seem,
When he may hide himself from every eye,
And cherish the dear thought in secrecy!
While sweet remembrance sooths his thrilling heart,
And brings once more past hours of kindness nigh,
Recals the look of love when forced to part,
And turns to drops of joy the tears that sadly start.'

We shall not anticipate, nor interrupt, the approbation with which such stanzas as the preceding and the following must be received. Nothing is more offensive to readers of taste than to be officiously directed *how* they are to admire; and nothing is more useless than to point out to others *where* the secret charm lies, in the passages proposed to their consideration:

'There are who know not the delicious charm
Of sympathising hearts; let such employ
Their active minds; the trumpet's loud alarm
Shall yield them hope of honourable joy,
And courts may lure them with each splendid toy:
But ne'er may vanity or thirst of fame
The dearer bliss of loving life destroy!
Oh! blind to man's chief good who Love disclaim,
And barter pure delight for glory's empty name!'

The passage at the beginning of the sixth canto, *

'When pleasure sparkles in the cup of youth,' &c.

is of unusual excellence: but, captivating as it is, we must reluctantly exclude it from our pages, of which the limits sternly warn us to forbear. The dreadful power of indifference, that "slumber of the soul," (as it has been well denominated,) is admirably described in this passage; and every Benedict and his Beatrice should lay the lesson to heart which it so strikingly conveys. The growth and progress of this fatal apathy we must omit, as we premised: but the two concluding stanzas absolutely demand insertion.

'Who can describe the hopeless, silent pang
With which the gentle heart first marks her sway?
Eyes the sure progress of her icy fang
Resistless, slowly fastening on her prey;
Sees rapture's brilliant colours fade away,
And all the glow of beaming sympathy;

---

* 'Deceive' and 'receive,' in that passage, are hardly admissible rhymes, unless the stanza excuses them.

Anxious to watch the cold averted ray
That speaks no more to the fond meeting eye
Enchanting tales of love, and tenderness, and joy.

'Too faithful heart! thou never canst retrieve
Thy withered hopes: conceal the cruel pain!
O'er thy lost treasure still in silence grieve;
But never to the unfeeling ear complain:
From fruitless struggles dearly bought refrain!
Submit at once—the bitter task resign,
Nor watch and fan the expiring flame in vain;
Patience, consoling maid, may yet be thine,
Go seek her quiet cell, and hear her voice divine!'

With one other extract we must conclude. Few of our readers, we hope, will have been displeased with the length of the quotations which we have already made, but will rather thank us for having given them so many additional motives for perusing this attractive composition.

'Fond youth! whom Fate hath summoned to depart,
And quit the object of thy tenderest love,
How oft in absence shall thy pensive heart
Count the sad hours which must in exile move,
And still their irksome weariness reprove;
Distance with cruel weight but loads thy chain
With every step which bids thee farther rove,
While thy reverted eye, with fruitless pain,
Shall seek the trodden path its treasure to regain.

'For thee what rapturous moments are prepared!
For thee shall dawn the long expected day!
And he who ne'er thy tender woes hath shared,
Hath never known the transport they shall pay,
To wash the memory of those woes away:
The bitter tears of absence thou must shed,
To know the bliss which tears of joy convey,
When the long hours of sad regret are fled,
And in one dear embrace thy pains compensated!

'Even from afar beheld, how eagerly
With rapture thou shalt hail the loved abode!
Perhaps already, with impatient eye,
From the dear casement she hath marked thy road,
And many a sigh for thy return bestowed;
Even there she meets thy fond enamoured glance:
Thy soul with grateful tenderness o'erflowed,
Which firmly bore the hand of hard mischance,
Faints in the stronger power of joy's o'erwhelming trance.'

It may be objected, perhaps, to this poem, that the author too often occupies the place of the heroine, and speaks more frequently in her proper person than epic canons have allowed to the poet. We know not how this may be; or, at all events, we shall not here contest the point, whether or not the Æneid would have gained in beauty, if Virgil had given us more such passages as—"*Nescia mens hominum*,"—"*Fortunati ambo*,"—and one or two others.—In an allegorical poem, and in a close though modernized imitation of Spenser's manner, the writer seems to have a sort of hereditary right to be as moral and pathetic as he pleases, in his own person: but *we* shall say no more in defence or in praise of Psyche. We shall allow the excellent author to make her own impression at parting, on the mind of the reader, and shall only add a warm wish that our native poetry may be improved, as it certainly ought to be, by this "rare example (as we have already expressed ourselves) of united taste and genius."

'I should willingly acknowledge with gratitude those authors who have, perhaps, supplied me with many expressions and ideas; but if I have subjected myself to the charge of plagiarism, it has been by adopting the words or images which floated upon my mind, without accurately examining, or being indeed able to distinguish, whether I owed them to my memory or my imagination,

Si id est peccatum, peccatum imprudentia est
Poetæ, non qui furtum facere studuerit. TERENTIUS.

'And when I confess that all I have is but the fruit of a much indulged taste for that particular style of reading, let me be excused if I do not investigate and acknowledge more strictly each separate obligation. M. T.'

A portrait of Mrs. Tighe is prefixed to the volume.

ART. IV. *Hebrew Criticism and Poetry*, &c. By George Somers Clarke, D.D. &c.

[*Article concluded from* p. 33.]

THE Appendixes, which occupy the principal bulk of this volume, contain Readings and Interpretations of Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and Daniel; and a Catena, consisting of poetical, or, to speak more correctly, rhyming versions of the prophecies of Baalam and Habakuk; of the Songs of Deborah and Hannah; and of the Lamentations of David over Saul, Jonathan, and Abner. Of the general spirit and scope of Dr. Clarke's criticism we are inclined to approve; because it delivers Revelation from that load of embarrassment into which it is plunged by those who are continually looking after double senses *. As a verbal critic, however, he appears to us to be more bold and original than successful, and, in this point of view, we say of him, parodying the old song,

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* 'In the present age of criticism, the double sense of prophecy cannot any longer be maintained.' (p. 103.)

> " We do not like thee, Dr. Clarke;
> The reason why shall not be dark;
> Be not then angry, Dr. Clarke."

This critic will, we hope, excuse us if we are less minute in our notices than he might desire; because, if we were to specify every instance in which we are at issue with him, we should far exceed those bounds to which we must now confine ourselves.

In Isaiah iii. 16. *et seq.* the articles of the dress and decorations of the Jewish ladies in the time of the prophet are enumerated. Of the precise meaning of many of the words, at this distance of time, we must have a very inadequate idea: but though two translators cannot in all points agree, some versions are more plausible than others. In various instances, Dr. Clarke may be right: but in one of the two phrases which we have marked with italics, he has introduced terms expressive of an invention which was subsequent to the era of the prophet; and in the other he has reminded us of the transparent drapery and *invisible petticoats* of our British belles in the 19th century.

> ' 16. " Moreover-hath-said Jehovah: because that
> " The-daughters-of Sion are-haughty;
> " And-walk extending the-neck,
> " And coquetting with-their-eyes;
> " Imitate children in-their-walk,
> " And upon-their-feet tinkle-rings:
> " Jehovah (יהוה for אדני) will-therefore-humble the-
> " head-of
> " The-daughters-of Sion, and-their-shame he-will-uncover.
> " In-that day the-Lord will-take-away
> " The ornament-of the-ancle-rings,
> " And the-netted-bandeaux, and-the-crescents;
> " The-lockets, the-glasses, and-the-veils;
> " The-plumes, the-sandals, and-the-zones;
> " And-*the-medallion miniatures*, and-the-amulets;
> " The-rings, and-the-jewels-of the-nostril;
> " The-pellices, and-the-robes, and-the-vests, and-the-stock-
> " ings;
> " *The-revealers*, and-the-shifts, and-the-turbans, and-the-
> " shawls.
> " And-there-shall-be, instead-of perfume, putrefaction;
> " And-instead-of elegant-dress, rags; (d. יהיה.)
> " And-instead-of uniform covering, nakedness;
> " And-instead-of a-scarf, a-belt-of sackcloth;
> " And-carbuncles (וכוי) instead-of beauty."'

What could have induced Dr. C. to have rendered at v. 20. וּבָתֵּי חַנֶּפֶשׁ *the medallion-miniatures?* בת denotes something *hollow*, like a box; (perhaps the French word *boite* is hence derived;) and Parkhurst, who regards the original idea of the word נפש to be *to respire* or *to be refreshed*, translates the two words *Perfume-boxes*, approving of the Vulg. *Olfactoriola*, and observing that "they are still in use among the Persian women, to whose necklaces, which fall below their bosom, is fastened a *large box of sweets*." No one, like the maid of Corinth, had appeared, as we find, among the daughters of Sion, to prompt the Jewish artist to portrait-painting; and it is not probable that the ladies, at the period to which this passage refers, were decorated with *miniatures* of their relatives or admirers. If by *medallion-miniatures*, Dr. C. should tell us that he only means *small medals*, we reply that the original words can have no such signification. At the *revealers*, we old codgers ought not to squint; for flannel will suit us better than transparent drapery: but we may be allowed to remark here, in order to prevent our recurrence to the subject, that, though in this place Dr. C. follows Drs. Lowth and Stock in rendering גלינים *a vest which does not conceal what it covers*, we are not sure that the critic, had he consulted Calasio, would have yielded to the authority of these respectable names. גָלָה may be rendered *revelavit*, in the sense of *aperuit*, as a volume or roll reveals its contents by being unrolled; and therefore it is not certain that, even in this place, גלינים means either book-muslin handkerchiefs, or invisible petticoats: but we are persuaded that in Is. viii. 1. גִּלָּיוֹן is not an article of female attire. Surely the prophet would not have been directed to take a woman's garment that he might write on it, but *a large roll*, which would better suit his purpose. On the general sense of the prophecies, chap. vii. 14—16. and chap. viii. 1—4. Dr. C. makes these remarks:

> 'Chap. vii. 14. 'It is humbly apprehended, that the young woman, usually called The Virgin, is the same with the Prophetess, chap. viii. v. 3.; and IMMANUEL, so to be named by his mother, the same with the prophet's son, whom he was ordered to name MAHER-SHALAL-HASH-BAZ.
>
> '15. "Butter and-honey shall-he-eat, *after*-he-shall-know
> "To-refuse the-evil, and-to-choose the-good."
>
> See Blayney on Jer. xvi. 14.
>
> 16. end.
> "Shall-be-left the-land, concerning-which thou
> "Art-uneasy, upon-account-of the-two kings."
>
> 'Chap. viii. 1—4. is a continuation of the prophecy of the sign, vii. 14—16. The prophet's elder son was SHEAR-JASHUB, "the-remnant shall-return:" his younger son was to be called by his mother,

ther, or by the people of Judah, **Immanuel**; for God was with them, and would deliver them from the two kings. Thus, his two sons, whom God had given to him, were to be for signs and wonders from Jehovah, v. 18. But, he himself was to name the younger son, not Immanuel, but **Maher-shalal-hash-baz**, the meaning of which was a consequence of the meaning of the other name. "God-"(is)-with-us:" therefore "must-be-hastened the-spoil, dispatched "the-prey." The birth of this son was now to be introduced; the prophet having orders to take to him a large revealer, an article of woman's dress, ch. iii. 23. and here placed, as it is conjectured, for the person herself of the woman, who was to be one of consideration, i. e. a prophetess. He was to write in her presence in a manly style: "Must-be-hastened the-spoil, dispatched the-prey." The masculine language of the חרט אנוש is expressed by the preposition ל governing the participle future passive, in English, *must be done*. This to a woman of Jerusalem, Ps. lxviii. 12. and a prophetess, was sufficient. Respectable witnesses were called, and the prophet was married to a virgin: the mother of Shear-jashub having probably been dead, as he might have been born in the reign of Uzziah, when Isaiah in his first vision might have foreseen and declared that a remnant would return from the Babylonian captivity; which, with the restoration, seems thus far to be the literal sense and subject of the prophecies of Isaiah.

' 1. " And-Jehovah said unto-me;
" Take unto-thee a-large revealer:
" And-write upon-it in-masculine language;
" Must-be-hastened the-spoil, dispatched the-prey."

' 4. The child had only to be able to say; Ab-i, Am-i; which it probably did soon after the complete age of two years: before which, Samaria was spoil; Damascus prey.'

If we consider Isaiah ix. 6, 7. to be a distinct prophecy, bearing no reference to the verses which precede and follow it, how can we account for its position? Is it not more reasonable to look to the context for a hint as to the nature of the subject to which it relates? Dr. C. appears to have adopted this plan, and has furnished a version which we believe to be new: how far it is authorized, a glance at the Hebrew will shew.

' 3. Reference is to Midian, defeated by Gideon, Judges vii. 22.
' 4. " For every-one-shod himself
" In-the-storm, and-his-garment rolled in-blood
" Was-even to-be-burned, fuel-for fire."
' 5. latter part.
" And-the-principal-turn-of-affairs hath-been upon his-shoulder:
" And-his-name is-called: Wonderfully counselling,
" The-mighty God with-my-father
" Hath-engaged-that peace should-be-chief,

' 6.

'6. " Of-the-increase-of the-superiority, even-of-peace where
" Shall-be-an-end unto the-throne-of David?"

'Bp. Lowth writes: 'Chap. ix. 7.—Ch. x. 4.] This whole 'passage makes a distinct prophecy. It has no relation to the preceding or following prophecy.—Those relate principally to the 'kingdom of Judah; this is addressed exclusively to the kingdom of 'Israel.' On the contrary, it appears to be a regular continuation of the prophecy of peace to Judah, and an assurance that the prosperity of the Jews would be effected by the humiliation, first of their neighbouring enemies the Israelites, and afterwards of the more distant Assyrians: and this seems to be the general subject to nearly the end of the xth ch. in the 33d and 34th vv. of which the invasion and captivity of Judah by Nebuchadnezzar appear to have been predicted.'

Is. xxiii. 1. is here rendered 'The *suffering* of Tyre! howl ye.' We shall not farther attend to the innovations attempted by this critic, in conformity with his new principles of rhythm: but we shall observe that, howmuchsoever we dislike Dr. Lowth's and Dr. Stock's substitution of the heathenish term "Oracle," for the *burden* of the common version, we cannot think that *suffering* is to be adopted as the synonym of מַשָּׂא. Perhaps *denunciation* would be preferable to either.

Dr. Clarke supposes that, in the first thirty-five chapters of Isaiah, the prophet delivers the series of visions which he saw until the end of the reign of Ahaz; and that the thirty-sixth chapter introduces the reign of Hezekiah, during which the prophet saw all the remainder of his visions. Their direct import he endeavours to unfold, avoiding that turn for spiritualizing which is so general in commentators. He regards the prophet, in the commencement of 'The Song of the Desert,' (chap. xxxv. 1.) as foreshewing the preparation of the return from the Babylonish captivity, in order to exhilirate and support the minds of the afflicted Jews. It is thus given in metre:

'THE SONG OF THE DESERT.

'Isaiah, chap. xxxv. ver. 2.

'Boast, Lebanon, again the seat divine!
Carmel and Sharon, in new splendor shine!
Once more thy cedars veil Jehovah's face:
Once more your fields with fruit our God shall grace.
'Ye hands relax'd! be with fresh sinews strung:
Ye yielding knees of-age! once more be young,
Bid each unsettled heart in God be bold:
Dispel your fears; your present God behold!
Crush'd is Chaldea by his vengeful rod:
He, captives! he is come; your Saviour, God.
'E'en the blind view him with unclouded eye:
E'en list the deaf salvation's joyful cry:

E'en leap the gladsome lame, like bounding deer:
E'en now the dumb their own loud carols hear.
'The deep canal the wither'd plains divides:
Across the desert torrents roll their tides:
Where gleam'd the sand, the pool's wide waters spread;
And quench'd is thirst at many a fountain's head:
No steril haunt the couching dragon knows:
Rich pasture springs, where reed and bulrush rose.
'Here, captives! is your causey;—e'en a road,
God's own highway to Sion's blest abode!
No foot unclean profane this sacred ground:
But ever on it be God's faithful found:
Where devious paths no simple folk shall tread:
Near which to roam shall hungry lions dread.
E'en upon it no beasts of prey shall rise;
No lordly tiger meet the trav'ller's eyes.
'But now proceed the claim'd;—God's ransom'd race
With songs returning Sion's causey trace:
For, Sion's ancient lays their thoughts employ.
(Ps. cxxxvii. 6.)
Sion they reach, fit theme of mirth and joy.
Captives! YOUR sighs are fled! YOU griefs no more annoy.'

To chap. xxxviii. 20. the following note is subjoined; which may be of use in ascertaining the objects to which we are immediately referred in many of the Psalms:

'Hezekiah's invitation to Isaiah to assist him in setting to his stringed musical instruments compositions of thanksgiving, to be sung in the temple all the days of his life, probably denoting all his allotted years, or upon each anniversary of his recovery, seems to indicate Isaiah as the author of many of the Psalms in the collection principally ascribed to David. How many of them may appear descriptive of the distress occasioned by the combination of Israel and Syria against Judah, and by the invasion of Sennacherib; of the defeat of the latter; and of the storm by which his army perished: how many also may correspond with circumstances in the reign of Hezekiah, or in the time of Isaiah, equally as in that of David; an attentive reader may discover. But, without an examination of all of them, the xxxth, ciid, and ciiid Pss. seem peculiarly to present themselves as compositions on the subject of Hezekiah's [*] sickness and recovery. Compare them with Hezekiah's writing here recorded. The [†] *Asaphs* appear to have been the *collectors* of the Psalms; or the authorized composers of them, the prophets of the respective times, who also were the writers

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'[*] See also Pss. vi. xx. xxi. xci. ci.; also the Ps. for the service of the Inauguration, (on the 25th of October,) and cxvi. in the Thanksgiving of women after childbirth: but vv. 7—10. of Ps. vi. and 7, 8. of xx. and 8—12. of xxi. seem to respect the subject of Sennacherib and the Assyrians.'

'[†] Isaiah, the Asaph in Hezekiah's time. See Matth. xiii. 35. ed. Griesbach, and before on ch. xxxiii. 15.'

of the historical books of Kings and Chronicles. The ancient Jews, speaking of the law and the prophets, included the book of Psalms under the latter term. Marsh on Michaelis, vol. i. p. 496.

'The whole collection, named in the Hebrew title Praises, was probably ascribed to David, because they were either composed by him, or by his order; or by the kings of Judah, his successors and of his family, who were also frequently called by his name,—or by their order.'

Not only is the commencement of chap. xl. restricted to the consolation of Hezekiah and his contemporary countrymen, but even chap. liii. is interpreted with a similar allusion. We shall quote the passage:

'Ch. LIII. 1. The prophet speaks, and in the prophetic præter, as in 8, 9, 10. 14. of the preceding chapter. The report refers to the last metre of lii. 15. Who *hath* believed? i. e. who *will* believe this future alteration in the captive restored from Babylon?

' "Who hath-believed our-report;
"Even-the-arm-of Jehovah (לְמִי) to-whom hath-been manifested?
'2. "That-one-should-aspire, as-a-tender-plant into-the-open-air;
"Even-as-a-root from-a-land-of drought;
"In-which is-not elegance,
"Or beauty, that-we-should-regard-it;
"Neither-is its-appearance-such, that-we-should-desire-it.
'3. "Despised, even-ceasing from-amongst-men: (such was the captive,)
"A-man of sorrows, even-known-to grief:
"Even-as-one-that-hideth the-face from-us,
"Despised; neither esteemed-we-him.
'4. "Surely our-infirmities he* hath-borne;
"Even

'* The most usual signification of נשא is, to *bear*, and of סבל, to *carry*; which latter confirms the meaning of the former. The person described by Isaiah, the Jewish captive returning from Babylon, or the Israelitish from Assyria, did not *take away* or *remove* the infirmities or sorrows of his countrymen, but he *bare* and *carried* them. Neither did our Lord, to whom Matth. viii. 17. this prophecy is applied, *take away* or *remove*, but, as ἔλαβε and ἐβάστασε express, he *took up* and *carried*. The physician does not *take away* or *remove* infirmities and disorders, but he *takes up* and *carries* the burden of them: not exactly as the captive bears the miseries of captivity, by suffering them; but by lifting a considerable part of the load from his patient, and bearing it upon his own mind. The physician is but the instrument under God, the remover of infirmities and diseases. Thus our Lord was the physician, the *homo*, to whom *humani nihil alienum*; and by analogy to the captive, possibly an unoffending person, who suffered for the faults of his countrymen who lived before him, he lifts upon himself the load of human wretchedness.

“ Even-our-sicknesses הוא he hath-carried :
“ Whilst-we esteemed-him one-stricken,
“ A-smitten-of God, even-an-afflicted.
‘ 5. “ But-he was-wounded for-our-revolts :
“ He (הוא) was-bruised for-our-idolatries :
“ The-discipline by-which-our-peace-was-effected was-upon-
“ him :
“ Even-by-his-bruises healing-was to-us.
(See also 8, end.)
‘ 6. “ We-all-of-us as-sheep have-strayed :
“ Each to-his-own-way, we-have-turned :
“ Even-hath-Jehovah made-to-light upon-him
“ The punishment-of us-all.”

‘ See v. 11. and Blayney on Lam. iv. 22.

‘ 7. “ He-was-brought-forth ; even-he was-questioned :
“ But-he-opened not his-mouth :
“ As-a-lamb to-the-slaughter was-he-brought :
“ Even-as-a-sheep before her-shearers is-dumb :
“ Even-opened-he not his-mouth.
‘ 8. “ From-the-solemn-day (r. ח), even-from-written-law was-he
“ taken :
“ Even-his existence who will-be-able-to-declare ?”

‘ The captive was deprived of his religion and sacred law, and shut up in unseen and unknown existence.

‘ “ Surely he-was-cut-off from-the-land-of the-living :
“ For-the-revolt-of the-people was-the-blow-inflicted
“ upon-them.” ’

‘ Niph impersonal future relative : see 5, end. Many died in captivity ; and all were cut off from their own country, and from their relatives therein. The last word of the v. signifying *to-him*, or *to-them*, shows, that the person described is, in the noun of multitude, *the people* immediately before mentioned.’

The extracts which we have already made will be sufficient to shew the manner and design of Dr. C. as a critic on and commentator of the prophetic parts of the O. T., and we shall not follow him through his readings and interpretations of Jeremiah, but proceed to the prophet Ezekiel; where, at the very threshold, we are stopped by a note on the phrase, “ Visions of God” (Chap. i. 1.) in which the annotator does not appear sufficiently respectful to the prophet :

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wretchedness. The prophecy was fulfilled when the captive returned from Babylon or Nineveh : and the thing spoken by ‘ Isaiah the prophet’ again πληρωθῇ *might be publickly declared* as a true saying, when our Saviour dispossessed the dæmoniacs and healed the sick. That πληρόω in Hellenistic or Jewish Greek acquired such signification, see Michaelis's Introduction, translated by Marsh, vol. i. pp. 128, 129.’

'Also xl. 1. Great sights, or dreams of the night. See the word so connected, Gen. xlvi. 2. This vision of the chariot-throne of Jehovah appears to have been the dream of a young priest, divinely impressed with a sense of his duty, in preparing his countrymen for a future restoration from captivity, by withdrawing them from idolatry. To detach a reader from his attention to the sober interpretation of Abp. Newcome, is by no means intended by the assertion that if a general comprehension of the vision as denoting the glorious majesty of Jehovah, v. 28., satisfy not, the different parts of it, like those of a dream, so far from submitting to accuracy of interpretation, bid fair to mock and defy for ever whatever attempts of criticism may be made to elucidate them. The mission of Isaiah, ch. vi., had doubtless filled the mind of the young Ezekiel in his waking hours antecedently to his dream of his own introduction to the prophetical office. The ænigmatic diffusion of this prophet may be considered as a mark of a declining age, and perhaps of the captivity of the language, or of the mind, as well as of the people.'

To whatever source we attribute the pictorial representations and strange combinations of objects in Ezekiel's first vision, we shall be at a loss to arrive at any definite idea of their import. The vision in the first chapter baffles all interpretation: but the object of the prophet's mission is very clear; he was sent to the captive Jews; and his addresses consist of a pointed reproof of their idolatry, with offers of a change in their civil state on a reformation of manners. No figurative language can more beautifully and strikingly illustrate the withered hopes of the Jews during the Babylonish captivity, than the vision of the valley full of dry bones (chap. xxxvi.); and no mode of address could speak more forcibly to them than that which the prophet has adopted. No mark of declining age here appears: but every thing is bold and appropriate. Jehovah is introduced as commanding the re-union and re-vivification of these bones; and, as all things are possible with God, the Jews were instructed to depend on their civil restoration. If any antient prophecy be susceptible of a double fulfilment, it is this; for it prefigures the prominent doctrine of the N. T. dispensation: yet it is manifest that Ezekiel restricts its application to the re-occupation by the Jews of their own land, or a national resurrection (as Dr. C. expresses it) by a return from captivity. As a farther specimen of his new readings, we copy a portion of this chapter:

'1. " Was upon-me a-hand of Jehovah,
" Even-one brought-me-forth-in-a-mind-of Jehovah,
" Even-set-me-down in-the-midst-of the-valley,
" Even-it-was full-of bones:
'2. " Even-he-caused-me-to-pass beside-them round and round;
" Even-were-not many exceedingly
" Upon the-face-of the-valley?

" Even-were-not they-dry exceedingly ?
'7. " So-I-prophesied as he-commanded me :—
'14. " For-I-will-put my-breath within-you; even-ye-shall-live :
" Even-I-will-place you upon your-own-ground :
" Even-ye-shall-know that I
" Jehovah have-spoken, even-will-perform." '

We shall take our leave of Dr. Clarke's novel versions and interpretations, after we have transcribed his exhibition of what is commonly called Daniel's *Seventy Weeks*: (Daniel, Chap. ix. 24. *et seq.*:)

'24. " Seventy years are-the-times appointed-to-thee,
" Concerning thy-people, even-concerning a-city
" Appropriated-to-thee ; to-confine each-revolter,
" Even-to-complete calamities, even-to-expiate idolatry,
" Even-to-introduce an-acquittal-of ancient-times,
" Even-to-seal-up vision by-a-prophet,
" Even-to-anoint most appropriated-worshippers.
'25. " Therefore-let-be-known, even-let-be understood, that from-
" a-promulgation-of
" A-decree to rebuild Jerusalem
" Unto an-anointed commander,
" In-weeks (d. d.) threescore and-two
" Shall-it-be rebuilt throughout-the-extent-of
" Its-ruin, when-were-disastrous the-times.
'26. " Then-after the-weeks threescore and-two,
" Shall-an-engagement-be-made with an-anointed commander ;
" That-never shall-be-to-him an-invader to-distress-him,
" Even-who-the-city, even-who-the-sanctuary shall-destroy
" As-with-an-inundation, or-unto-an-end-of
" A-war completely-ruinous in-desolations :
'27. " Even-shall-be-confirmed a-covenant with-many ; (d. 4.)
" Although-hath-been-made-to-cease sacrifice, even-offering-
" of-flour ;
" When-upon a-border was-an-abomination-of a-desolator ;
" Even-until a-completion, and-that-thoroughly-ruinous
" Shall-be-poured upon the-desolator." '

This rendering is, we believe, perfectly unique, and to comment on all its novelties would occupy more time and space than we have at our disposal: we must therefore beg to be excused; and in lieu of any remarks of our own, we shall insert Dr. C.'s note appended to this passage:

' Dr. Blayney on this prophecy, in both his editions, Mr. Wintle, and Mr. Parkhurst on the weeks, have all been read with due attention. For the purpose of understanding the prophecy, as it hath been commonly understood among Christians, it was necessary to comprehend the weeks as so many hebdomads, or sevens, of years: and so powerful hath been the prejudice in favour of this interpretation, that scarcely a suspicion of a possibility of its being questioned appears to have arisen. That every one of the weeks denotes seven years, Dr. B., following the herd of commentators, takes for granted throughout his dissertation. Mr. Wintle seems to consider Grotius as having been amongst the moderns the author of this interpretation, after the example of the Greek version and of the ancient fathers of the Christian church. Yet he himself does not comprehend the weeks as denoting sevens of years in the 24th verse. On ver. 25. he says; 'That the word *week* is understood for a period of 'seven years, may be learnt from Gen. xxix. 27. where "to fulfil 'her week" is explained by performing another seven years service 'for Rachel.' But is the elliptical language of Laban or of Moses to regulate a prophecy of Daniel, in or concerning which is no such explanation as is given by Moses? 'And in Lev. xxv. 8. seven 'sabbaths, i. e. weeks of years, are seven times seven years.' But, in this and the following verses of Daniel there is nothing either of sabbaths or of years, even supposing *weeks* to be a just translation. Perhaps Mr. Wintle should have understood weeks of days, whereever the context or some parallel passage did not define or determine the sense to *years*, as in Gen. xxix. 27., and Lev. xxv. 8., and not have followed Grotius and the Talmudists. Nor can it be allowed, that what Calmet observed of Varro, or what Mr. Wintle has observed upon the text, will authorize the interpretation of weeks of years.

'If, as Sir Isaac Newton is said to have asserted, the Christian religion is founded upon this prophecy concerning the Messiah, alas for any religion which is founded upon a prophecy concerning Zerubbabel!'

We proceed now to the Catena; the first link of which is formed by the prophecies of Baalam translated in rhyming couplets. Numbers xxiii. 19., rendered in the Bible version, "God is not a man that he should lie, neither the son of man that he should repent," is thus given by Dr. C.:

> 'No *man of rank* is God, of words not sure;
> Nor common man whose speech can none secure.'

To say nothing of the Sternholdian quality of the verse, we wish to know what could have induced the learned critic to suppose that איש signifies *a man of rank*, or a gentleman? Throughout the volume, this idea is maintained: we shall no otherwise combat it than by requesting that, when Dr. C. fulfills his promise of giving us a prose-translation of the Minor Prophets and of the Psalms, he will not render Ps. i. 1. "Blessed is the *man of rank* who walketh not," &c. lest he should be suspected of maintaining the singular notion that religion was only designed for gentlemen.

> V. 23. 'Surely shall no *conjecture* Jacob harm,
> Against Israel shall prevail no charm.'

Conjecture is 'surely' not a proper word in this place; rather should it have been written,

> 'No *incantation* e'er shall Jacob harm.

The concluding couplet is,

'E'en Ashur shall obstruct the *pilgrim's* way:
E'en then himself shall pass for ever to decay.'

Why is not the proper name *Heber* preserved? If the meaning of the term עבר is to be expressed, *emigrant* or *foreigner* is preferable to 'pilgrim.' The Hebrew word signifies *transfluvialis*, or denotes the fact that the first of the family came into Canaan from the other side of the Euphrates.

A clear view is given of the prophecy of Habakuk, for which we are obliged to Dr. C.: but could he think that so fastidious an age as the present would tolerate such a couplet as this?

'Thou, God! too pure of eyes to look on woe;
E'en as thy ken loves not distress to know.'

In the Song of Deborah, (Judges v.) the poetry does not improve. Ver. 20., which Dr. Geddes translates,

"From the heavens combated the stars!
From their orbs they combated Siserah,"

stands thus in the volume before us:

'Then from the skies engaged the orbs of light:
Then in their paths the stars sped, Sisera! thy flight.'

Can Dr. C.'s *ear* tolerate this? *Meroz*, mentioned v. 23., is supposed by this critic to be Simeon; he even concludes it to be demanded by the *exigentia loci* as the other fighting tribes have been enumerated. Dr. Geddes, however, deems it probable that the Meroz here cursed is the same with *Merom*, mentioned in Joshua xi. 5.

Shall we confess our surprise that, in versifying the Lamentation of David over Saul and Jonathan, Dr. Clarke should repair to the LXX, for the meaning of חצבי (ii. Sam. i. 19.) and render it *column*, instead of *Antelope?* * No. We need not farther express our sentiments nor our feelings. The Doctor, however, let us own at parting, has taken great pains, and has laboured to diffuse light; and though he has failed in some instances, his learning and genius are apparent. The multitude of theological readers will probably disapprove of the boldness of his measures; and if here and there he finds a few speculative individuals who are satisfied with his readings and interpretations, he must rest contented.

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* The LXX meant by Στήλωσον to express the height and beauty of Jonathan's person: but it is not a figure which an Eastern writer would employ. In the apostrophe to Jonathan,

"O antelope of Israel!
Pierced on thine own mountains!"

the metaphor is carried on, and Dr. Geddes justly remarks, that "all over the East, the antelope is regarded as the emblem of beauty and agility, and has always afforded an ample field of metaphor to the Oriental bards."

ART. V. *Sketches of History, Politics, and Manners, taken in Dublin and the North of Ireland,* in the Autumn of 1810. 8vo. pp. 294. 8s. Boards. Cradock and Joy. 1811.

OUR countrymen are, in general, so much less acquainted with Ireland than with the rest of the empire, that the production of a tourist who professes to enlighten them on its 'politics and manners' appears intitled to early attention. The obstacles to travelling on the continent, however deeply to be regretted on other accounts, have at least the advantage of inducing us to become more accurately acquainted with our own island; and though Scotland affords occupation to the greater proportion of our wanderers, the number of those who visit Ireland seems likewise to be on the increase. That the diffusion of accurate information regarding our sister isle is most ardently to be desired must be apparent to all who have observed the errors which prevail in respect to that country, in those assemblies on whose legislative acts its suffering or its well-being so materially depend; as long, therefore, as we are thus circumstanced, it is incumbent on us to receive information from the report even of second-rate travellers, and to affix a value on the book which exhibits a candid exposition of facts, though hastily put together, and seldom indicative of profundity of research.

The author of the present work represents himself as leaving London under the pressure of sickness, in hopes of finding relief from pain in distant and rural scenes. He has concealed his name: but he appears to have been born in the North of Ireland, to have studied medicine at Edinburgh, to have served some time in a medical capacity in the army, and to have re-visited his native country after an absence of several years. Liverpool being the place chosen by him to embark for Dublin, and a contrary wind having detained him there some time, his readers are favoured with a communication of his opinion of that bustling sea-port. Whether it was owing to the vexatious circumstance of detention, or to his habitual dislike of the scenes of maritime occupation, he discovers a much smaller share of good humour on this occasion than during the sequel of his journey. He terms Liverpool, very unjustly in our opinion, little better than a 'respectable Wapping or Rotherhithe;' and he goes the length of asserting that 'the smell of tar assails the passenger in Castle-street and the squares, as well as in the Docks.' Admitting that the part of the town adjoining the water is confined and irregular, and that the want of an original plan is too often apparent, it was incumbent on him to have paid a warmer compliment to the appearance of the new streets to the eastward; and to have acknowleged the advantages, both for health and beauty of prospect, of the extent of rising ground on which a future city may be expected to stand. He omits, likewise, to take notice of the elegance and magnitude of the public rooms for the purposes of business, of literary recreation, and of civic meetings; accommodations in which Liverpool is second to no city in the kingdom. — The wind having at last become fair, the vessel in which he embarked passed quickly along the rocky and dangerous coast from Liverpool to Holyhead, and landed the passengers on Irish ground in the space of twenty-six hours. Having been a sufferer from sea-sickness, the author appears anxious to contribute towards diminishing the inconvenience of it to others. He advises the novice in sailing to keep, as long as it is in his power, on deck; and, when compelled to quit it, to 'stretch himself as much at length as possible, with his head low and firmly pressed to the pillow, endeavouring to lose all motion of his own and to accommodate himself to that of the ship.'

After an account of the landing, and the conveyance of the passengers in the long-coach to Dublin, the traveller enters on a description of the city; which, as it is free from the fantastic effusions scattered through the greater part of the book, will afford a favourable specimen of his composition:

> 'There is something inexpressibly graceful in the appearance of this town to a stranger; he is forcibly struck with the strong likeness it bears to London, of which it is a beautiful copy — far more beautiful in miniature, than the gigantic original — like a watch set in a ring, it charms with its fairy distinctness, its light and airy construction: the streets are wide and commodious, the houses uniform, lofty and elegant: Sackville street is a noble avenue, a hundred and twenty feet wide, terminated by the rotunda, and public gardens — nor do I know any square in London, that equals Merrion Square for beauty and uniformity of appearance: the river is open to the view, in the whole of its course through the city, and the quays, when properly embanked, will form a walk superior, perhaps, to any thing of the kind in the universe.—The Liffy, however, is but an inconsiderable stream, and only remarkable for having the metropolis seated on its banks.'—
>
> 'Notwithstanding its antiquity, Dublin has few ancient edifices, either public or private; the massy labours of our fathers having given place to the lighter works of their sons: the houses have almost all the appearance of being built within the last century, and even the churches, with the exception of Christ Church and St. Patrick's Cathedral, are of modern construction. The castle of Dublin, nominally an ancient, is in reality a modern building; it was formerly moated and flanked with towers, but the ditch has been long since filled up, and the old buildings rased: the chapel and wardrobe tower excepted, which still remain.

‘Though Dublin Castle is pretty, and even magnificent in some of its parts, it is deficient as a whole; it has no uniformity of plan, and as it is so scattered that the eye can take little of it in at once, it has no dignity of appearance — it bears too evident marks of the various repairs it has undergone, and like Sir John Cutler's worsted stockings, so often darned with black silk that they changed their original nature, it has lost all traces of its venerable origin, in the grotesque embellishments of modern art. — The College Library, which I saw for the first time to day, struck me, as I think it must every stranger, with its superb and lofty magnificence. — It is built of hewn stone, with an elegant Corinthian entablature, crowned with a ballustrade and ornamented windows, and consists of an extensive centre and two advanced pavilions. In the western pavilion are the librarian's apartments, and the grand stair-case, from which, by folding doors, you enter the Library, by much the finest room in the three kingdoms appropriated to such a purpose: the galleries are adorned with the busts of many illustrious writers and literary characters, executed in white marble, by the ablest masters; and on the shelves are to be found an admirable collection of the best writers on every subject, in number exceeding forty-six thousand volumes, which is also daily increasing.’

In the course of his perambulations through Dublin, the author represents himself as accidentally meeting with Mr. Curran, of whom he speaks with little favour, in regard either to the *moral* or the *physique*. Of Mr. Grattan, whom he is next said (p. 34.) to observe in the street, he gives a very different report, pronouncing him to be a steady and inflexible patriot; who, regardless of ephemeral and evanescent popularity, has held, during a period of thirty years, "the even tenour of his way." Although the eulogy on Mr. Grattan's oratory, which follows this cordial testimony to his loyalty, is somewhat highly coloured, it contains an admission that he is neither a fluent nor a frequent debater on the common business and details of parliament. It is on a grand question of justice or morality,—a question involving the happiness of the present and of succeeding generations,—that the powers of Mr. Grattan become conspicuous, and display with effect that capacity of generalizing which is possessed by so few of his brother-members.—The author is evidently an Anti-Pittite, and by no means satisfied with the course of policy observed either in the present or in former ages by England towards her sister-kingdom: but he approves of the Union, and ridicules the gloomy predictions of those who alleged that it would tend to the depopulation of Dublin.

Having traversed the interior of the Irish metropolis, the traveller availed himself of the opportunity afforded by Palmerston fair, for observing the amusements of the lower orders belonging to Dublin and its neighbourhood. Tired of the jingling of the wheel-cars along the streets, he proceeded to the scene of entertainment by the Phœnix park. In his way, he passed the barracks, which are esteemed the largest and most commodious in Europe, consisting of four squares, situated at the west end of the town, on the north side of the river. On the occasion of so numerous and so miscellaneous an assemblage as the fair collected, he could hardly fail to experience considerable annoyance from the beggars who were seated in crowds along the road-side:

'The address of an Irish beggar is much more poetical and animated than that of an English one; his phraseology is as peculiar as the recitative in which it is delivered: he conjures you, for the love and honour of God, to throw something to the poor famished sinner,—by your father and mother's soul, to cast an eye of pity on his sufferings;—he is equally liberal in his good wishes, whether you give him any thing or not; "may you live a hundred years, may you pass unhurt through fire and water, may the gates of Paradise be ever open to receive you;" are common modes of expression, which he utters with a volubility that is inconceivable.—The men and women at the fair in general were decently dressed; the women in stuff and flowered cotton gowns, with ribbands and mob caps: They almost universally wore white thread stockings: when a poor Irish woman wears shoes and stockings, she is always dressed; worsted ones, therefore, are seldom used.—The men wore coarse coats of a blue or brown colour; several danced in great coats of grey cloth or frize; though the weather was unusually warm, they did not seem inconvenienced either by them or the exercise they were taking.—The lower Irish are spare and thin—they are generally dark complexioned, with black hair, and often with thick bushy eye-brows; this gives an expression of countenance very different from that of an English peasant.—There is an air of vivacity and restlessness, of intelligence and, perhaps, of mischief in the former, totally unlike the fat, contented ignorance of the latter—though not more so than his harsh and disagreeable tones in speaking, to the soft and musical ones of a London accent. We staid about an hour longer, and then went away—the scene which pleased at first by its novelty, lost all its charms along with it:—we were kindly pressed to stay dinner by the good lady of the tent where we were sitting—"We should have a hot loin of mutton (she said,) with a cut of salmon, and a rice pudding along with it, in half an hour."—I was anxious to see the kitchen from whence the roast mutton and rice pudding were to issue;—it was a large hole made in the ground, directly behind the tent—there was a blazing turf fire large enough to roast an ox, covered with pots, and several spits before it.—I am assured, had we stayed, we should have got an excellent dinner; but as there is often in the evening a course of fighting, the *dessert* might not have been so agreeable.—The custom of fighting, however, is not near so universal as it was—it is now pretty much confined to single combats with the fist, and does not, as formerly, involve the whole field in a general battle with Shillalahs, made of their native oak; which, in an Irishman's hand, is not a very gentle weapon, and has no pretensions to one property of a joke—namely breaking no bones.'

Though the author visited Dublin in the month of August, when, as in London, all who aspire to the character of persons of *condition* make it a rule to be out of town, he is at no loss to form a decided opinion on the state of society in the Irish metropolis. The absence of the nobility from Dublin he attributes to their want of independent feeling, and to their leaning for support on ministerial favour. The men of landed property, likewise, appear to consider that their consequence could not be kept up without annual visits to London, Bath, or Cheltenham, and seldom condescend to come among their tenants except for the purpose of raising their rents : — but if the great are personally absent from Dublin, the imitation of their manners remains, and is kept up with no slight degree of emulation by those of inferior rank. The traders give dinners and routs, which may bear comparison with those of the great, in point of splendour as well as in ease of manner ; the universal prevalence of good-breeding in Dublin being one of its most conspicuous advantages. It is mixed, however, in the author's opinion, with a tolerable portion of vanity ; the usages of this metropolis making it necessary to give dinners at an expence which is often inconsistent with the fortune of the entertainer. This hospitality is, therefore, something like a holiday suit, and is displayed only on state-occasions. The price of it is paid by an habitual retrenchment in private ; so that the greatest dread of persons living in this manner is that of being taken unawares at a humble family-meal.—In the absence of the nobility and country-gentlemen, the lead in Dublin-society is taken by the learned professions, particularly by the lawyers ; the extent of whose eventual elevation confers a consequence which is unknown in the medical and even in the clerical line. The passage in which the eloquence of the Irish bar is characterized appears to us one of the best in this part of the book :

'The style of the Irish bar is different from the English—it is less solemn and decorous, but more lively and animated, more glowing and figurative, more witty and sarcastic—it reasons less, it instructs less, it convinces less, but it amuses more ; it is more ornamented, more dramatic ; it rises to the sublime, it sinks to the humourous, it attempts the pathetic—but in all this there is too much the tricks of a juggler. I don't say that an Irish advocate thinks less of his client than an English one, but he appears to think less ; he appears to think most of himself— of his own reputation, of the approbation of his brethren, the applause of the spectators, and the admiration of the Court. —— I dare say I should be most gratified by specimens of eloquence taken at the Irish bar, but was either my life or fortune at stake, I should like to be defended at an— English one.'

When the traveller had spent some time in the society of the Irish metropolis, he bent his course to the north, and passed successively through Drogheda, Monaghan, Coote-hill, Omagh, the pleasant village of Newton Stewart, and Strabane. He had the comfort of experiencing a great improvement, in late years, in the condition of the Irish inns; — an improvement arising in some degree from the progressive advancement of civilization, but more from the exertions of the country-gentlemen, who felt sore at the derision to which the reports of travellers and strangers perpetually exposed them. The mercantile distress which began in the last summer, and still continues its pressure on this country, has been felt yet more severely in Ireland; where it is ascribed to the evil effects of the Union, with as much confidence as it is assigned among us to the extension of bank-paper. It is remarkable that in both countries commercial men are agreed in one point,—in throwing all blame off themselves; as if habits of profuse expenditure were not the infallible means of preventing that accumulation of capital, which alone can form a barrier against the fluctuations of trade.

A visit to the province of Ulster is calculated to convey a melancholy impression of that political and religious antipathy which has so long proved the scourge of Ireland. The Protestants have for many ages been strong enough to enter the lists of opposition with the Catholics, but not sufficiently powerful to acquire a decided superiority. Hence an endless series of contentious insurrections and assassinations on both sides. It was in the latter part of Queen Elizabeth's reign, that the government of England first saw the necessity of directing a mass of force to the reduction of the North of Ireland. The inveterate hostility of Philip II., and the facility of conveying supplies to Ireland from Spain, (the western coast of which extends so far into the Atlantic as to make the passage easy and expeditious with a south-west wind,) rendered it highly expedient to strengthen the tenure of England over her sister-kingdom. After several alternations of success and immense bloodshed, the subjugation of Ireland appeared to be accomplished: but the ravages of war were not followed by clemency in peace. Compulsion was still the motto of the English government; and the unfortunate Catholics were both stripped of their lands, and coerced in the exercise of their religion. It is to this conduct that we must attribute the cruel revenge taken on the Protestants by the massacre of 1641, and the horrors which ensued; the effects of which were such that "about the year 1652 and 1653," says an author who was an ocular witness of the state of things, "the plague and famine had so swept away whole counties, that a man might travel twenty or thirty miles, and not see a living creature." Such was the unhappy state of Ulster for many ages, that the writer of these travels may be permitted to say, without great exaggeration, that 'the waves which break on its rocky shores are the peaceful circles of a lake, compared to the storms raised by fanaticism and bigotry.' It is but too apparent, from what we have witnessed in the present age, that the waters are only lulled, and might with little difficulty be raised again to violent agitation.

'Love for one's religion, in Ireland, by no means implies religion in the common acceptation of the word; it is not devotion, it is not benevolence, nor even morality. It is pride, it is vanity in its cool, it is delirium, it is phrensy in its heated moments. It mingles with their amusements, and floats on their cups; it is felt by the drunkard and blackguard, as much as by the most orderly and sedate.'—

'I stood an hour in my friend's shop at Drogheda this morning, after breakfast, and was highly amused with the manner of doing business. The number of people that came in was very great, and so was the trouble they gave: one or two women bought gowns, and I observed that the colours they preferred were all different shades of green; a very elegant stuff, of a pale yellow, was shown them—the youngest seemed pleased with it, but the other whispered something in Irish, and then laid it aside. I remarked the shopman smiled, and asked him what she said, "Don't have any thing to do with it, it is a *protestant* colour." Green, in all its shades, is catholic—Orange is protestant: Green is not only the most beautiful, but it is the national colour.—All the attachments, indeed, and prejudices of the Catholic, have a reference to the country, to the soil, to the sod, as he affectionately terms it. Very few of these poor people could speak English.'—

'About a mile from Cross-roads, near Omagh, is the village of Emma-Vale. The country round it is level; the fields appear to be well cultivated, and are agreeably intersected with hedges; in most parts of the north of Ireland, the fences are formed of stones. This village was formerly called Scarnageragh, an Irish word, of which I don't know the meaning;—but which signifies, I suppose, something for which the town is famous. All Irish names of places, I believe, are compound-epithets.—As the country becomes refined, Irish names become obsolete; they are too rough "for ears polite." I was curious, however, to learn the etymology of Scarnageragh; I overtook a middle-aged man, decently dressed, and asked him if he could inform me. "I dinna ken," said he; "I canna *spake* Erish—I would never *fash* myself with it; for, to tell you a secret, I neither love it, nor the breed that *spakes* it."—"That's a secret," I replied, "I should never have suspected; are you not an Irishman yourself?" "In troth, and I'm *nane*; I, and *aw* my generation, *ha* gone to meeting this *fowr* hundred years."—"They must have been a clever generation indeed," said I, "to have gone to meeting a hundred years before there was any.—Where was you born?" "In *yon wee hoose*," said he, "on the *tap* o'the *brae*, with the *auld* tree *owr* it."

By the Erish he meant the native Irish, or the catholics: — his ancestors probably were settled a century among them; yet he spoke and thought of them, exactly as a Scotchman would have done. The manner of his expression involved what may be termed a bull — yet it is a bull [which] grave and sober Englishmen have committed. Sir John Davis, speaking of the city of Kilkenny, says, "there are more Englishmen born in it, than in any other city in Ireland."'

Were it not for the unhappy prevalence of religious divisions, the state of society in Ulster would be not only well adapted to ultimate improvement, but attended with a considerable share of present comfort.

'In other parts of Ireland, it is to be lamented there are only two classes in society, and that the third, which is the best, is wanting — it is not wanting here. But there are not only three classes, but it may likewise be said, three nations. The gentry, who are the English Irish, — the merchants, shop-keepers, and manufacturers, who are the Scotch Irish, — and the servants and labourers, who are mostly composed of the native Irish. — The second class is by far the most rational, the most enlightened, and the most industrious body — equally removed from the extremes of want and wealth, it is in the middle state between poverty and riches, in which the Royal preacher wished to be placed. — It must be admitted, however, that profusion on the one hand, and the exactions of landlords on the other, are inclining it rather to the side of poverty. In most other countries the gentry give the tone to society, — it is the middle class, that gives it here — they are the link which unites the other two — to a certain degree, correcting their errors, and softening their hatreds — their gravity is the ballast, which steadies the bark of Irish levity, and their placidity the oil which tempers the rough edge of English arrogance — in consequence of this, the gentry of the North are milder in their manners, "and bear their faculties more meekly," than in the West and South of Ireland. — It is, therefore, among the Presbyterians of Ulster that the provincial character is to be sought; and I am happy to be able to remark, that after attentive examination, I find their virtues far more numerous than their defects. In general they are great readers of the Bible. — It is the first book that is put into their hands, and all their ideas take a tinge from it; and often their phrases: — they are accustomed to reflect, and to talk on the doctrines it contains, and are, therefore, great reasoners on theological, as well as other subjects.' — 'There are few great farmers — the country people are mostly weavers, and have a few acres of land only. This is the ancient, and almost patriarchal mode of life, more favourable to happiness and morality — to national prosperity, though not perhaps to bloated national greatness, than any other. — The better class of country people live in great abundance — wine is not much used — but they have great plenty of what they like better, and what is better adapted to the climate — which is Whiskey punch. — They are slovenly in their habits, and an Englishman would often feel disgust at the state in which their houses are kept. They are in general large unhewn masses of stone—with little ornament without, and little cleanliness within.'

The concluding part of the description will receive some illustration from the account of a visit paid by the author to an affluent farmer, in the neighbourhood of Omagh:

'The house where we were going was surrounded by trees, and looked very well at a distance; however, it did not improve upon nearer acquaintance:—we drove up to the door, and stepping incautiously out, I was half way up my leg in a large puddle of dirty water, which stagnated at the very threshold—my nankeen pantaloons, and white stockings, were little improved by the immersion. "Evil betide me, (said my conductor) not to tell you to step on the board." On looking down, I found there was a board, on which, as on a bridge, I entered the house.—"Never mind the water, my honey, (said the farmer) take a drop of the cratur to keep it out of your stomach, and I warrant you it will do you no harm;—my s*a*rvants are so busy, so busy, but if you happen to come this way about Christmas, you shall have a hearty welcome, and dry footing in tothe bargain."—As most farm-houses in the North of Ireland are similar in construction to the one I was now in, I shall describe it exactly:—It was two stories high, white-washed, and thatched;—on entering the hall, I found it likewise the kitchen, where a large fire was blazing—on the right hand was the parlor, off which there was a small bed-room; the apartments above correspond in size to those, but were mere lumber rooms;—they resembled the worst half of Noah's ark; they were a receptacle for all unclean things.—When I was shewn to the room in which I was to sleep, I could not help being struck with its dreary and forlorn appearance.—It was large enough for a barrack, and seemed a barn metamorphosed into a bed chamber.—The wind whistled through the broken panes, as melancholy, if not as musical, as an Eolian harp—it would have been an invaluable treasure to Mr. Monk Lewis, who has so happily revived the raw-head and bloody-bone stories of our infancy, to frighten the grown children of England—it only wanted a gang of banditti, a couple or three skeletons, a ghost, and a lady, to have made it a *jewel* of an apartment.'

The emigrations to America from Ireland, which have so long taken place, are much more common among the Protestant than the Catholic part of the population. The former often make the exchange as a matter of calculation; the latter only from necessity. The Presbyterian, active and enterprizing, seeks the country in which his prospect seems fairest, without much regret at leaving his native soil; while the Catholic, unambitious, and uninstructed in the ways of life, and fondly attached to his country and his friends, accounts expatriation among the most serious of evils. The proportional number of Catholics to Protestants in Ireland is thus successively on the increase, as well from emigration as from other causes. The Protestant in general does not marry so young as the Catholic; he has more the ideas of an Englishman, and likes to provide some sort of settlement before he takes a wife. The Catholic, more improvident, marries while yet a youth, 'piles up a heap of sods into a cabin,' rears potatoes, and gets children like a patriarch of old.

The present traveller is very angry, and, in our opinion, with great reason, at the ridicule which tourists and dramatists still endeavour to throw on the habits and conversation of the Irish. We agree with him that much mischievous misrepresentation occurs on this subject; and that authors may be said to 'manufacture Irish bulls in their garrets as vintners do port in their cellars.' It is the duty of a tourist to give a picture, not a caricature; to observe men and manners; and to render a report for the instruction more than for the amusement of his readers:—but, so far from doing this, the majority of travellers in Ireland appear to deem it incumbent on them to pursue the track of their predecessors, and to continue a supply of food for antient prejudices; they go about, accordingly, twisting and perverting innocent expressions, and making bulls when they cannot find them. On referring to the well known principle in human nature, that contempt is still harder to be borne than injury, we shall not be at a loss to discover that the alienation of the Irish towards their fellow-subjects derives its origin, in no slight degree, from this offensive source.—The traits of national character in the present work are very much in the style of former writers; and the author, in this as in other things, is often irregular and declamatory, though he seldom fails to convey a lively impression of his ideas. He mentions (p. 136.) the feeble resistance made in the year 1798 by a numerous body of insurgents who had fought before with courage, but were assailed in an unlucky moment by a small party of yeomanry:

> 'These unfortunate wretches made, it would appear, but a poor resistance, unworthy of their former reputation. — This will not be wondered at, by those who understand the character of the lower Irish — who are, beyond all others, governed by wild and unsettled emotion, and are often as helpless in depression, as they are bold and enterprising under less desperate circumstances.—The courage of the Irish peasant, like all his other virtues, is headlong, violent, and unreflecting.—Furious in attack, cheered by example, and animated by hope, regardless of consequences, he rushes boldly into the cannon's mouth; but in hopeless danger, which he has leisure coolly to survey, his fortitude almost always forsakes him,—despair, which often gives courage to others, who never possessed it before, softens and relaxes his.'

In contrasting the habits of the English and the Irish, the author gives by a few touches (p. 165.) an animated idea of their opposite character and tendency. With the one all is the gratification of the moment; while, with the other, a provision for the future appears the foremost consideration. The Irishman delights in the 'present moment, the present spot, the present company;' while an Englishman has comparatively a limited enjoyment of these, 'and lives in the future, the distant, and the absent.' Fortunate, however, as the disposition of the former is in some respects, it seldom fails to be attended, in advanced life, with the general consequences of improvidence. This fact is strikingly illustrated by a conversation which is represented (p. 172.) as taking place between the author and a lady, whose residence gave her the means of knowing the history of the companions of his youth:

> 'We talked of times that were long past, and of persons I had once well known — there was not one family among whom great changes had not taken place; and so much I fear does misery predominate over happiness, that not even in one of them was the change for the better,—many whom I left children were grown up to men and women, and had turned out ill; many whom I left old and infirm, were alive still, a burden to others, as well as themselves;—while the healthy and vigorous, in the bloom of youth and fullness of manhood, had been snatched away, and now mouldered in the tomb. — There had been considerable emigration to America, a desire of change had taken some; poverty and drunkenness more. —This latter vice had made great progress among the youth, and several promising young men were destroyed by it.'

In the exposition of the character of the citizens of Dublin, the author dwells with much energy (p. 81.) on their charity; 'a charity not founded on acts of parliament, nor weighed and measured by the standard of law, but the offspring of a sympathetic heart.' He has the candour, on the other hand, to acknowlege that the progress of reason is abundantly slow in Ireland, and that much of what is really vice is not so deemed. Drunkenness among the lower orders is not accounted a sin; nor is quarrelling: — but we have had enough of these ungracious topics, and willingly relinquish them in order to transcribe the author's opinion of the ladies:

> 'In general they are fair and well-looking—They are not unsuccessful copyists of English fashions, and have a good deal the appearance of English women. If there is a shade of difference, it is that their features are harsher, and their persons rather more masculine.—They are very fond of dancing, in which they display more vivacity and rapidity of movement than elegance or grace. This, perhaps, may be no evil. Young women who are taught the steps of opera dancers, are often apt to learn their tricks. They are more acute and knowing than English women. — They have not (I think) by any means, so much sensibility; their passions are not so easily inflamed.

es of this very vice of pride do not do as much good, as any
re virtue;—at least, if female chastity is the essential virtue that
are disposed to think it. Irish pride gives chastity to the fe-
in a degree that hardly any country this day in Europe can
of. Adultery, or an intrigue even, is unknown among females
middle class.—A married woman may be violent, may be a ter-
it.—An unmarried one, may be pert, may be ignorant, may
ppant,—but they are,

> "Chaste as the icicle,
> That hangs on Dian's *fane*."—

, pride is the buckram and whalebone in the stays of Irish
ty, which enables it to walk through life, as stately as a
ss at a coronation.'

ir readers would be led to pronounce too favourable an
on on the compositions of this traveller, were they to
of the volume at large by the passages which we have
cted. From a wish to exhibit the useful parts of the book,
ave hitherto avoided dwelling on the author's excentric
mations and wandering digressions: but we are bound, in
al justice, to admit that they constitute a considerable pro-
on of the printed matter before us. Meeting accidentally
a friend who had been one of his comrades in the expedi-
to Holland in 1799, he enters into a long detail of that un-
nate enterprize; and much of the well-known political dis-
nces of Ireland in late years is here repeated:—but the
tre affords him the principal fund for extraneous disserta-
; and that topic seems uppermost to his recollection in his
re moments, from the beginning of his peregrinations at
rpool till they approached to their close at Omagh. An-
r charge that we must prefer against him is a redundance

and as he does not appear to have called in the indispensable aid of glasses, he is apt to make remarks (p. 148.) on the illegibility of direction-posts, which would scarcely occur to any but a short-sighted traveller. On this charge, however, we are not disposed to lay much stress; the chief drawback of the book is the oddity already mentioned in the style, which is so conspicuous from the commencement, as to create a very unfavourable prepossession in regard to the general merit of the production. It is to be apprehended, therefore, that many readers may lay down the work in disgust: but those who persevere will have the satisfaction of discovering that the writer, however volatile, is nowhere tedious, and that his sudden aberrations are generally followed by sound and liberal observations.

Art. VI. *An Inquiry into the Moral Tendency of Methodism and Evangelical Preaching.* Including some Remarks on the Hints of "a Barrister." By William Burns. Part the First. 8vo. pp. 141. 4s. sewed. Johnson and Co. 1810.

The independent, temperate, and argumentative manner in which this Inquiry is conducted, stamps on it a considerable value, and of course intitles it to peculiar notice. If Mr. Burns does not accord with the "Barrister" in the whole extent of his charge publicly preferred against the Methodists, he takes the same side of the question, and is a very powerful coadjutor. Never, indeed, were the doctrines and mental character of this new sect more nicely or more fairly analyzed. Here is a mirror in which the Methodist may see himself represented *to the life*; and we are disposed to think that all of the Calvinistic persuasion, who read this tract, and are not blinded by an excess of enthusiasm, will hence be disposed to examine into the accuracy of those principles which they have hitherto regarded as established truths. The plan which we have recommended to the rational opponents of the Evangelical Preachers has been partly adopted by Mr. Burns; and, as he comes to close quarters with them, they must experience unprecedented difficulty in parrying his threats. The "Barrister," indeed, was at least principally indebted for his knowlege of these preachers, and of the sect to which they belong, to the publications which they have sent forth into the world; and he argued on the natural tendency of those indiscreet and degrading declamations against morality, in which the Evangelicals indulge themselves, on the great bulk of mankind. Mr. Burns takes a nearer view, and dissects with greater nicety. He has availed himself of the peculiarly favourable opportunities which he enjoyed for studying the character of Methodism; and his account of the virtues and the vices, which form the prominent features of this sect, most clearly proves that he has not studied it in vain. We are persuaded that the charges of glaring immorality, brought against the Methodists as a body, are groundless; that Calvinism, however subversive of every virtuous principle it may appear at the first glance, is not generally fatal in practice; and that it is neutralized, in the heart of the Calvinistic believer, by a saving clause. Sects must not be condemned on a superficial view; for they are often better than their principles, when reported by their adversaries, would represent them. Mr. Burns, addressing the "Barrister," says;

> 'You ought to have distinguished between a nonsensical jargon of arguments, part of which may seem to be of immoral tendency; and a system, whose direct and practical influence is notoriously vicious. In the former case, it may be a mere logical error, of which the party is unconscious, and however you may wonder at his absurdities and inconsistencies, yet he may have a way of his own of reconciling them; and his system of religion, in some other parts of it, may apply such sanctions to the obligations of common honesty, as entirely to correct any evil consequences which might arise from any logical errors into which he may have fallen.'

This hint is of importance; for the serious Methodists will produce the evidence of their lives to prove that their scheme is not subversive of the virtues which are connected with *sincerity*, viz. sobriety, truth, and honesty. If we survey them closely, we shall find, as Mr. B. remarks, that 'their virtues are sincerity and zeal, and that their vices are of a peculiar kind, springing from an improper direction of the religious principle.' To develope the errors of the Evangelicals, and to shew in what way this improper direction of the religious principle operates, is the object of the writer of these letters *; and we are inclined to believe that his mode of accounting for the popularity of their doctrines, on other ground than that of their being gratifying to the taste of the profligate and the wicked, is a justice due to the majority of the sect. Whatever errors the Methodists may at present entertain, and whatever may be their operation on some minds, such inquiries as that now before us will, in time, reach the case; and, without legislative interference, which we solemnly deprecate, will produce the desired effect. Truth and reason degrade themselves by appealing to the arm of civil power. Gamaliel's advice ought never to be forgotten. If a sect has been preached and written into popularity, let us, if we deem that sect erroneous in doctrine or discipline, be contented with preaching and writing against it.

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* Addressing himself to the Barrister, he says, 'So far as your accusation refers to the perversion of the religious principle from its proper object, the distortion of it into a fantastic shape, and inspiring it with a mischievous spirit, fatal to the peace, the happiness, and further moral improvement of its believers, you are supported by undeniable facts.'

After this remark, which we have often made, the Evangelicals will not suspect us of any unfairness. Our wish is to do them ample justice. We would be followers of them as far as they are followers of Christ: but if they misapprehend the principles which Christ taught, and if, by this misapprehension, a false direction is given to the religious principle, 'by means of which, (as Mr. B. observes,) all the virtues of the higher order, which are not necessarily attached to sincerity, are more or less debased, and sometimes entirely extinguished,' then we must beg leave to enter our caveat against their system, and strenuously to oppose it in the field of argument. We have formerly wished, in order to bring the contest to an issue, that this Calvinistic sect would define their terms; and the necessity for the adoption of this measure is so apparent, that Mr. B. calls on his readers, at the outset of his discussion, to distinguish between the *meaning* and the *doctrine* of the general body, and shews that the dispute about the obligation to good works lies more in words than in meaning.

On the *preaching* of *the Calvinistic Gospel*, great stress is laid by the members of this sect, as the medium through which the Holy Spirit is conveyed; and hence, Mr. Burns thinks, 'a species of superstitious idolatry towards preachers is produced. The preacher is considered as the only medium of divine influence, and is revered as a mediator between God and man.'

> 'The devotion to their preachers, and the sacrifices which the people make at their shrines, at the expence of domestic and social duties, deserve the severest reprehension which you have given them; and it is an *immoral* practice, which they cannot deny, as abounding in a far greater degree among them, than among any other set of Christians. In addition to the cases of this kind which you have stated, I can assert, from my own knowledge, that the mother of a family will sometimes *lock up* a number of small children, in the house by themselves, and go to hear a *sermon;* trusting their infants as they say, to the good providence of God, and giving thanks when they return, that none of them have fallen into the fire, or otherwise hurt themselves.'—
>
> 'If a young person, or silly female, become a convert to an evangelical preacher, the authority of the father and the husband, is often superseded by that of the priest; and although the morals of the fa-

> mily to which the converts belong, be unexceptionable, yet their minds are poisoned, by insinuations that all the rest are children of the devil but themselves; that there is no edification in their conversation, no wisdom in their counsels, compared with those of their new spiritual-guides. Filial and conjugal piety, the endearing bonds of domestic union, are thus made to give way to the superior homage, claimed by a ghostly director, and discord is sown among those, whom the laws of nature and of God had bound together by the tenderest ties.
>
> 'I would not be understood, however, as accusing the preachers of Methodism indiscriminately, with an *intention* to produce such a debasing superstition; I have heard many of them lament it's prevalence, and among the more enlightened part of their people, many are superior to it's influence, and patterns of social virtue; but in so far as it can be traced home to the influence of their opinions, and in so far as the vice itself is more frequent among their converts, the doctrines of evangelical preaching must be responsible for the consequences.'

Dr. South wittily remarks of the passionate sermon-lovers of his day, that they expected to be drawn up to heaven by their ears. With the modern sectaries, lecture-going is apt to grow into a habit, and then, like most habits, it predominates over every other consideration. The chapel is their nightly theatre, and the duties of home are neglected for the *precious* opportunities of public preaching and prayer. We could say much on the bad consequences of this mistake, without adverting to the *midnight*-meeting: but we must leave it to others to enlarge on this subject. Mr. Burns is inclined to believe that the Methodist's enthusiastic pursuit of divine influences, though it induces him to regard the ordinary means of moral improvement in a degrading point of view, does not furnish a principle on which we can depend in a time of trial: but on this topic, also, we shall here say nothing. It is more material to acquaint the reader with Mr. Burns's analysis of the Calvinistic, Methodistic, or Evangelical credenda, (for these terms are considered as synonymous,) or, to use the language of the sect, with '*the peculiar doctrines of the Gospel.*' These are classed under three heads:

> 'First. The doctrine which teaches that certain opinions concerning the spiritual essence of our Lord's Person, and concerning the influence of his Atonement, are *necessary to salvation.*
>
> 'Second. The doctrine which represents it as meritorious to entertain the most contemptible opinion of human nature, and teaches that all men, whatever dispositions to virtue they may have from natural constitution, or whatever moral habits they may have acquired by education, are still under the indispensable obligation of undergoing some extraordinary change; which, although it may be imperceptible to others, *must be sensible* to themselves; and which consists

in certain inward effects wrought by the power of the Holy Ghost, but which cannot be described, so as to let a person who is a stranger to it have any distinct conception of its meaning.

'Third. The doctrine which teaches that the divine favour and spiritual influences are all conveyed through certain ordinances, which ought therefore to be strictly attended to, and in the exercise of which as much time ought to be spent as possible, consistently with the necessary employments of civil life; and, particularly, that we ought to seclude ourselves, as far as it is in our power, from all company and recreations that are not visibly connected with religion.'

Each of these doctrines is combated by the letter-writer. He transcribes from the Methodistic hymns strange specimens of spiritual poetry, which are revolting to good taste and rational piety. "*Kissing* the bleeding feet of Christ"—"flying to his *dear wounds*"—"sheltering in his *bleeding side*"—"taken in by *his open side*," &c. &c., are expressions indicative of a religious mania. What a perverted idea must they have of the Divine Benevolence, who represent "*blood and wounds* speaking to his mercy!" (the language of one of the Gospel-Sonnets here quoted;) and how is the Saviour degraded by the following allusion:

> "Our *Sampson* took *a holy nap*
> Upon our feeble nature's lap"!

Mr. B.'s comment shall be subjoined:

'Surely the people who deal so much in *blood and wounds*, and can use such irreverent familiarity with the person and sufferings of our Lord, must be insensible to that pure and dignified veneration which his character ought to inspire. If they were sensible of it, they would not find it necessary to excite the passions, by conjuring up such tragic images of death and woe.'

When the Evangelical preachers declaim on the doctrines of Atonement and Justification, they attach a high importance to their explanations of the *manner* in which divine justice and mercy were influenced by the death of Christ; as if it were of more consequence for them to know how God ought to act, than how they should act themselves: hence a spiritual presumption, arrogance, and self-conceit. Mr. Burns's reasoning with the sect is designed, by exposing the weakness of their system, to cure the vices which spring out of it; and we hope that they will meet his arguments fairly. He combats the position of the Calvinists that 'merit and morality have *no influence whatever* in promoting or procuring forgiveness;' and his strictures on the subject of repentance are very proper to be submitted to those who are requiring from the best and the worst ought to be his continual study to remedy, and consequently a sense, it may be said that no man ever yet *has* completely There is also a very obvious distinction, between such imperfections, and what is usually called *vice*, although it difficult to define their exact limits. The one is not attended same destructive effects to the welfare of society, and with remorse of conscience as the other. The first is owing to , the second to *want* of principle.

h persons, therefore, as have been instructed early in their the principles of the Christian religion, and endeavoured to their manners to it, although they may be still very defective branches of knowledge and habits of virtue, cannot be said to *itent*. There may be need for them to increase in faith and ut there is no need generally to change their mode of conduct. ay lament that the prevalence of passion, or their want of nding and experience, have led them sometimes astray, but e no occasion to lament the general tenor of a life that has nt in a progressive improvement, in Christian knowledge and If they do not perceive all the excellence, and feel all the , of the Christian doctrine, it may arise rather from want of , or proper instructions, than from a bad disposition.'

3. desires his readers to reflect on the different circum- of the Gospel at its first publication and at present, and them against adhering in all cases to the literal sense New Testament-phraseology. He particularly instances eference to the word *Faith*; and he is decidedly of opinion men are more disposed to abuse the doctrine of *Faith* it of *Works*, the safest mode is to maintain the reputa- the latter. In short, he is alive to all the mischiefs esult from metaphysical orthodoxy; and having thrown is gauntlet as an anti-calvinist, he means, like the

ART. VII. *A Tour in quest of Genealogy*, through several Parts of Wales, Somersetshire, and Wiltshire, in a Series of Letters to a Friend in Dublin; interspersed with a Description of Stourhead and Stonehenge; together with various Anecdotes, and curious Fragments from a Manuscript Collection ascribed to Shakespeare. By a Barrister. Embellished with eight Plates. 8vo. pp. 338. 12s. Boards. Sherwood & Co. 1811.

THIS is a lively and entertaining *jeu d'esprit*. The author must excuse us for thus denominating his labours, if he should estimate any part of them more seriously: but he really deals so largely in that species of humour which may be classed under the genera of "*hoax and humbug*," that we know not whether we could give a more appropriate title to his performance. As those who are in the continual habit of jesting must be contented to be occasionally mistaken when they are in earnest, we shall on this principle treat the present writer as altogether a fabulous, or rather fabling, personage; and, since he very rarely enters on the discussion of grave subjects at any length, we shall chiefly confine ourselves to extracts from his work, and to those of an amusing nature. The volume, indeed, does not afford an opportunity for *discussion*; and we shall adopt the same purpose as its author has seemingly adopted, namely, that of dissipating the *ennui* of an idle moment, which our readers perhaps might employ worse than in perusing the following quotations and brief remarks.

We are informed in an advertisement that the editor of the work was possessed of several drawings, which had 'already ministered to the embellishment of a periodical publication;' and therefore, as he was furnished by the author with no original illustrations of the picturesque scenes which he had visited, he hoped it 'would neither be *reprobated* by that author, nor unacceptable to the public,' if he introduced some of them into the present volume. We are, in consequence, supplied with several very pleasing though very small engravings, which constitute some addition to the attraction of the book. Those, indeed, who possess the "Antiquarian and Topographical Cabinet" will not be greatly obliged by this new impression of some of the prints which that elegant work contains:—but if "repetition" be the "soul of poetry," why not of painting also? and, as we are somewhat inclined to agree in opinion with the humourist, who declared that "it was all pouring out of one bottle into another," we shall not be offended with this instance of conformity to the general rule.

The dedication to the Honourable Matthew Fortescue is signed H. Jones, and is dated, Bath, Nov. 20th, 1809. That the former of these gentlemen is a real existence we happen to know: but, if we should unjustly doubt the reality of the latter, (the companion of the author's tour,) he will pardon our hesitation, when he recollects the case of the six Mr. *Joneses* of Jesus College, Oxford, the friend of one of whom could not identify him by any particularity of description.—The letters are addressed to Charles O'Brien Esq. but the name of the author is *concealed*. He is reported to have 'abruptly departed from England,' in 'obedience to feelings, *whose* imperiousness no human philosophy has been able to control.' If the said or rather unsaid author be a creature of living flesh and blood, and if these feelings be of a sorrowful nature, we sympathize with his misfortunes, as we have shared in his smiles. — We proceed to give our readers an opportunity of doing the same, should they be so inclined.

The first specimen of the quizzing propensities of this tourist which we shall select is a mock account of an inscription on a *leaden* plate, which he reports himself to have seen 'in the back-yard of a Quaker's house at Milford.' It was found among the ruins of Pylle Priory, in Pembrokeshire, according to our minute informant; and its shape and size are described with equal accuracy: but we proceed to its contents, which are given in a subsequent page:

> 'I told you in a former letter, that the inscription was in a Greek character, and tolerably legible; but though we all understood that language, and Jones was deeply read in it, we could not make out a word that we could trace to any Greek root; a circumstance that puzzled us, nay vexed us exceedingly. At last our guest, with a sagacity he had discovered on several occasions, in the course of the evening, suggested that the words, though written in a Greek character, might be Latin, thereby rendering the inscription more mysterious; we then fell to trying it by this test, and wrote the words in Roman letters, and made out the following monkish lines;
>
> Prope locum ubi, valle
> Procul profanorum calle,
> Templum primus vir fundavit,
> Et rupis Virgini dicavit,
> Duorum gladiorum portu,
> Nobilis hæredis hortu
> Legati Angli, Dani Pillâ
> Edificetur magna villa;
> Quò colere Mercurium questû,
> Quovis vento, quovis æstu,
> Congregabunt mercatores
> Sicut apes circa flores;
> Cum tremebundi novo mundo
> Lucem trahent ex profundo;
> Et sacrè positum honore,
> Fili magni Eleanoræ

Malum summum orientis,
Domo Dei quando sentis,
Tunc vas Egypti ministrabit,
Et infantes cruci dabit.

'But though Latin words were made out, and those not perfect nonsense, yet turn them in what way we would, we could not give them consistency or explanation. Another suggestion was then hazarded by our stranger friend: "It is evidently," exclaimed he, with rapture, "an enigmatical prophecy (for all prophecies are more or less so); and now for an Edipus.

'"First, let us translate it literally: '*Near the place where in a* '*valley far from the path of the profane, the first man built a temple,* '*and dedicated it to the Virgin of the rock, in the haven of the two* '*swords.*' Why, does not that point out the founder of the old priory, in the ruins of which this relic was found? for perhaps, gentlemen, you, being strangers, may not know that the monastic building in question was founded by *Adam de Rupe* or *de la Rouche*, dedicated to St. Mary of the Rock; and by the haven of the two swords, must clearly be meant Milford, in Welch called *Aberdaugleddau*, the harbour, or port, formed of two *swords*, rivers so called, *Cleddau* being Welsh for a *sword*. Thus far I think we have got on intelligibly; but I fear the sequel will not afford us to easy a clue, but let us proceed. '*At the instance of the noble heir of an English* '*ambassador, a great town shall be built in the Pill of the Dane.*' It appears to me, that this is prophetic of the new town of Milford, being the creation of the Right Hon. Charles Greville, the *hæres factus* of the late Sir William Hamilton, ambassador to Naples, which may be said to be built in the *Dane's Pill*, or estuary, namely *Hubba*'s. So far we sail before the wind, and I presume we may get a few knots on, without much difficulty, as the lines,

'Quò colere Mercurium questû,
'Quovis vento, quovis æstu,
'Congregabunt mercatores
'Sicut apes circa flores,'

'*Whither merchants will flock to carry on trade for gain, like bees* '*about the flowers, with every wind and tide*;' evidently imply the consequence of such a creation, for "where the carrion is, there the crows will be also,"

'Now came a puzzler; we read and read again, we pondered, we paused, we ruminated; our gestation was long and painful; at last Jones proposed another bottle, to facilitate the birth; a motion we readily assented to. The bottle was ordered and brought, which we drank in awful silence. In order however to induce a discussion, I ventured to break it, by observing, that the four next lines, "*When the Shakers from the new world shall draw light from the deep,*" served to mark the time of the event referred to in the last couplet, and that the first line might shadow out the Quakers, who had come from the *new world*, another hemisphere, to settle there; but how they could be said to *draw light from the deep*, I could not understand. "Why now," said our guest, "as you have pointed our attention to the Quakers, this may be readily solved. They carry on the South Sea whale fishery, the produce of which is *sperma cæti*; out of this substance candles are made, and is not this drawing light from the deep?” — “But there follows another designation of the time,” said our guest’s son, who, modestly attentive to every thing that passed, had never, till now, presumed to take a part in the conversation, or hazard a guess, “and which I flatter myself, my visit to the church before dinner, has enabled me to explain:

‘Et sacrè positum honore
‘Fili magni Eleanoræ,
‘Malum summum orientis
‘Domo Dei quando sentis,
‘Tunc vas Egypti ministrabit,
‘Et infantes cruci dabit.’

Literally translated: ‘*When you see the highest mast of the Orient in ‘the house of God, piously placed there in honour of the great son of ‘Eleanor; then an Egyptian vase shall minister, and give infants to ‘the cross.*’ Is not the highest point of the l’Orient’s mast seen in the new church? and has it not been placed there, in honour of the *great son of Eleanor*, that is, *Nel’s son?* and may not the Egyptian vase, now ministering as a font, be said to give infants to the cross by baptism?” There was no opposing this ingenious solution of the finale of the prophecy.

‘The young Edipus having begged to make a fac-simile of the leaden plate and its inscription, which he did with wonderful expedition and correctness, one for himself and the other for me, together with an impromptu translation[*] in verse; I packed it up with this

---

[*] ‘Near the place, in a valley, where
The first of men, of whom we hear,
A holy pile was said to raise,
Devoted to the Virgin’s praise;
Far from path of the profane,
In two-sword port, in Pill of Dane,
A town of great extent shall rise,
In after-times, as shall advise
An English legate’s noble heir,
Whither merchants shall repair,
Round the flowers as thick as bees,
With every wave, with every breeze,
The state of commerce to maintain,
And worship Maia’s son for gain.
When those, who are dispos’d to shake,
Shall the new-found world forsake;
And shall, wonderful! to sight,
Draw from ocean’s depth the light;
When the Orient’s topmast you
In the house of God shall view;
A pious act, in honour done
Of Eleanora’s mighty son;
Then the Egyptian vase of note
Shall infants to the cross devote.’

and

publish the whole; yet in the mean time I will not so far tantalize you as not to treat you with a specimen of this curious farrago, but shall tack on to this letter a small sample of the prose and verse.'

Of the 'brilliant conceits' in *his own* or *his friend's* poetry, the Tourist speaks *properly* enough; since his modesty (supposing it, for the sake of argument, to exist) must necessarily be sacrificed to his assumed character of editor instead of author; and we admire his postponement of the publication to which he alludes, until he succeeds in his '*Hwlfordd* adventure,' or '*is at leisure*.' We shall, in consequence, expect the proofs of the authenticity of these MSS., and their fac-simile-copy, to appear on the Greek calends. The *original* papers have, alas! unfortunately perished.

'Out of a Manuscript Collection of Pieces in Prose and Verse, said to be written by Shakespeare to his Wife and others.

With a Ringe in forme of a Serpent, a Gift to his belovyd Anna, from W. S.

'Withinn this goulden circlette's space,
  Thie yvorie fingers form'd to clippe,
How manie tender vows have place,
  Seal'd att the altaur on mie lippe.

'Then as thie finger it shall presse,
  O! bee its magicke not confined,
And let this sacred hoope noe lesse
  Have force thie faithfull hart to binde.

'Nor though the serpent's forme it beare,
  Embleme mie fond conceipt to sute,
Dred thou a foe in ambushe theare
  To tempt thee to forbidden frute.

'The frute that Hymen in our reche
  By Heven's first commaund hath placed,
Holy love, without a breche
  Of anie law maie pluck and taste:

'Repeted taste — and yett the joye
Of such a taste will neaver cloie,
So that oure appetits wee bringe
Withinn the cumpass of this ringe.'

'A Letter inscribed "To Mistress Judith Hatheway, with mie hartie Commendations."

'Good Cozen Judith,

'I am out of necessitie to enact the part of secretarie to my wife, or shee would have payd her owne dett; for in trying to save a little robin from the tiger jawe of puss, her foote slipped, and her righte wriste therebie putt out of joynte, which hath bin soe paynfull as to bring on a feaver, and has left her dellicat frame verie weake and feeble, wherefore I have takin her a countrie loging, in a howse adjoyning the paddock of Sir Waulter Rawleigh, at Iselinton, where that great man shut in, often regales himself with a pipe of his new plant called tibacca, in a morning, whilst the whole world is too narrowe for his thought, which I hear helpeth it muche, and may be said for a trueth to enable him to drawe light from smoke. In an evnyng he sumtymes condesends to fumigate my rurale arboure withe it, and between evrie blast makes newe discovries, and contrives newe settelmentes in mie lyttle globe. Mie Romeo and Juliett, partlie a child of yours, for at its cradle you had the fondlyng of it, is nowe oute of leding strynges, and newlie launched into the world, and will shortlie kiss your faire hand. I think mie Nurse must remynd you of ould Debborah, at Charlecot; I owne shee was mie moddel; and in mie Apotticary you will discover ould Gastrell, neere the churche at Stratford; but to make amendes for borrowing him for mie scene, I have got him sevrall preserved serpents, stuffed byrds, and other rare foraign productions, from the late circumnavigators.

'Thankes for the brawne, which younge Ben, who suppd last nighte with us, commended hugelie, his stomach prooving he did not flater, and drank the helth of the provyder in a cupp of strong Stratford.

'You are a good soule for moistning mie mulberrie-tree this scorching wether, the which you maye remembre that I planted when last with you, rather too late, after the cuckow had sung on Anna's birthdaie, and I hope you maie live to gether berries from it, but not continew unweddid till then.

'Have you gott my littel sonnett on planting it? for if you have not, it is lost, like a thousand other scraps of mie pen. And soe poor Burton, my ould schoolmaster, is gone to that "bourne from which noe traviller returns:" I fancy I still see him, when every Munday morning, as was constantlie his custome, he gave a newe pointe to his sprygges of byrch, growen blunted in the service of the forgone week; a practise felt throw the whole schoole, from *top* to *bottome* - -

- - - - - - - - - -

You maie soone looke to hear from your crippled kinswoman, whose limm is muche restored by Sir Christopher Hatton's poultise; soe fare ye well, and lett us live in your remembraunce, as you assuredlie doe in that of your sinceare and lovyng Cozen,

'WILLIAM SHAKSPERE.'

'From my Loginge at Iselinton,
'June 12mo, 155 . . .'

We admire the prudent *lacuna* in the date, at the end of this extract; and, as we doubt not that some of our readers would be pleased with additional prose citations from this 'collection,' we should be glad to gratify them: — but our limits forbid; and we can only select another short specimen or two of the verse:

'I am preparing to copy,' says our tourist, 'another sample of my Shakspearian Collection, the production of a Lady-Bard, Anna Hatheway, afterwards Mrs. Shakspeare; for she too it seems had tasted of Helicon.'

‘ To her owne lovynge Willie Shakspere.

‘ From mie throane in Willie's love,
Whilest moare than roialle state I proove,
Circledd proude withe mirtle crowne,
I onn Englaunde's queene looke downe.

‘ And proude thie Anna welle maie bee,
For queenes themselves mighte envie mee,
Whoo scarse in pallacis cann finde
Mie Willie's forme, withe Willie's mynde.

‘ By formes forbidd to telle theire smarte,
And of the canker ease the harte,
Withe them, alas ! too ofte 't is seene
The wooman sufferes for the queene.

‘ But, oh ! withe us, moare blest than thay,
Heere happie nature hathe her swaye ;
Wee looke, we love, and, voyde of shame,
As soone as kindledd owne the flame.
‘ ANNA HATHEWAY.
‘ Bye Avone's syde.’

Our last specimen of this amusing forgery shall be the following :

‘ To the peerlesse Anna, the Magnette of mie Affectionnes.

‘ Nott that mie native fieldes I leve,
Swelles in myne eie the scaulding teare,
Or biddes with sighes mye bosom heave;
*A wyse man's countrie's everie wheare :

‘ Nott that I thus am rudelye torne †
Farre from the muses' haunte I love,
With manlie mynde this might be borne,
Else wheare the muse might friendlie proove :

‘ But, ah ! with thyne mie vitall thredde
So close is twysted, that to parte

‘ * In a letter from Milton to Peter Heimbach, as quoted in that valuable accession to the biography of this country, the Life of Milton, by Doctor Symmons, I remember an expression, echoed, as it were, from the great dramatist :

“ *Patria est, ubicunque est.*”

‘ † This seems to have been written on his quitting the country in consequence of his juvenile adventure with a party of deer-stealers, as the little poem which follows in the collection from Anna clearly settles.’

From thee, or e'er the bridal bedde *
 Was scarselie tastid, breakes mie harte.

‘ Oh ! would the fatall syster's steele
 Be stretched to cutt her worke inn twayne,
Wythelde whiche destynes me to feele
 That lyfe thus lenthen'd is butt payne.

‘ But yett a whyle her sheares be stayde,
 For dieing I would fayne reclyne
On Anna's brest, and theare be layde
 Wheare Anna's duste mote wedde withe myne.'

Another *copy of verses* is given, professing to be written by ‘ Anna Hatheway, To the Belovyd of the Muses and of mee,' which has equal merit with the preceding: but we can only refer our readers to it; as indeed we do to the whole of this volume, which contains, we think, with very few exceptions, some entertainment from the beginning to the end. Any tourists over the same ground would find it a very agreeable companion; and the scholar, antiquary, and general reader, are here presented with a *mélange* which offers something to each of their several tastes. We could point out, indeed, some hasty decisions, and some instances of imperfect information: but we shall wave, as we premised, the severity of criticism where it is so little required; and we only admonish the author that the characters of distinguished public men (should he touch on a similar subject again) ought not to be included in a sentence of such sweeping condemnation as we are about to quote. After having spoken of ‘ a senator of eminence,' who remembered the friends of his early days in his more exalted state of honour, and who, (as it is ludicrously stated,) though he had long before honestly discharged all his debts, gave ‘ Snip, and his other tradesmen, small places,' the writer observes, in continuation;—‘ Such consideration in the midst of state affairs, in my estimate, outweighs all the mock patriotism of the last fifty years, from W—s to Sir F—— B———t, or the boasted talents of the late Pilot who weathered the storm, and his rival, the Revolution Historian.'

‘ * By this it appears that Shakespeare had but just been married when the deer-stealing frolic took place; a circumstance to which, in all probability, we owe the noblest compositions of human genius.'

Art. VIII. *The Natural Defence of an Insular Empire, earnestly recommended;* with a Sketch of a Plan to attach real Seamen to the Service of their Country. By Philip Patton, Admiral of the White Squadron of His Majesty's Fleet. 4to. pp. 102. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1811.

It seems to have been the chief object of the author, in this publication, to prove (with somewhat perhaps of a professional bias) that a naval defence is the only proper system for Great Britain and her dependencies; and that we should, therefore, direct our attention and efforts particularly towards the keeping up of a skilful and superior Navy: adopting, before the return of peace, the necessary measures for attaching to it real and experienced seamen, and thus securing their services at any time when wanted. Admiral Patton certainly writes in a candid and dispassionate manner; and it must be confessed that most of his observations are intitled to attention and respect. His main purport is to preserve a superiority of skill, ability, and experience in our marine, by raising into higher estimation the warrant-officers, (with respect to whom the army has no correspondent appointments,) and by choosing them from a proper description of men; instead of selecting them, as we are frequently under the unfortunate necessity of doing, from among those who serve by compulsion, and who have manifested the ideas natural to such men in the most critical moments of dangerous mutiny. He is a strenuous advocate for our having not only a skilful navy, but a sea-force numerically superior to that of the enemy; as also for employing men of naval knowlege and experience at the head of the Admiralty. He is far from advising us, (like Captain Pasley in his Essay *,) to undertake continental conquest, or to enter all at once into war-crusades, for the dismemberment and destruction of the French empire: for he even regards our operations in Spain and Portugal not only as the result of an unwise and incautious policy, but also as a species of madness. We must own that the following observations on that subject, and on the idea of our becoming a military nation, appear to be in some measure well founded:

> ' Thousands of instances may be brought forward to prove the misery which a single man has entailed upon his country; and even our own is not without such examples. There is not a doubt that the ministers of this country intended to free Spain and Portugal from the French yoke, and the public mind seemed to second the mode which they adopted. The newspapers echoed the appro-

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* See our Review for August last.

bation, and British valour was to secure Spanish independence. But notwithstanding this general concurrence in opinion, the measure of sending British armies into Spain or Portugal, seems to have been viewing the subject under a false aspect. The object appears to have been imperfectly considered; the discipline and valour of our troops were powerfully impressed on the minds of ministers; but the torpid effect of the confidence which the Spaniards would place in our force was not perceived. The effects of religious prejudices were not seen, nor was it discovered that these prejudices were in favor of the enemy. Thus by viewing the object in a limited, and consequently under a false aspect, disasters happened, which may safely be imputed to the original error, without attributing any disgraceful change in the character of the inhabitants of Spain or Portugal.'—

'Such are the observations which naturally arise upon comprehensively surveying the state of Europe, and the situation of Britain. It is to present what appears essential in defence, that these pages have been written; and if they contain any reflections on public men, they are reluctantly drawn forth by the nature of the subject, and by no means convey any further censure than that of the general system. The subject becomes now every hour more important, the attention of the government having been drawn to land-war *by the ridiculous ravings of our becoming a military nation*, as if such words or any power could enable one man to conquer ten men equally trained to arms. Surely no men in their senses, can listen to what so clearly marks a deranged imagination, and the legislature will attend to that navy which prevents a superior force coming in contact with one greatly inferior, whatever may be its intrinsic value. If states stood firm upon their former foundations: If moderate kingdoms, and limited empires, now as formerly, had composed the great republic of Europe; such a representation as these few sheets contain might have been advantageous, although not necessary. But when a conquering ambitious individual rules Europe with the iron rod of power, self preservation urges the most effectual checks to so alarming an excess of dominion.—Or, if the wooden walls of this country had retained, in all points, the same elements of security, less might have been required on their structure. But if general alarming mutinies have happened: If king's ships have been delivered to the enemy, and the officers killed or confined: If those ships have been disarmed, and converted into vehicles for conveying horses and troops: If the number of seamen in them have been diminished to increase the number of landmen: and if from such circumstances, and such measures, the whole system of discipline has been materially altered, no language is sufficiently strong to convey the necessity of attention to this subject.'

Here we must remark, however, that we do not see any good reason for preventing ships of war from occasionally conveying troops, when the exigencies of the service render that measure necessary. Such an application of them may frequently save expence, as well as transports, (which cannot always be easily procured,) may sometimes facilitate the execution of enterprises that require celerity, and may generally ensure the passage of the troops with less hazard.

In the second section, Admiral Patton speaks of the ‘Importance of the direction of naval affairs in an insular empire.’ He observes that the Commanders of fleets may be of as much importance to such states as the leaders of armies are to continental governments; since such a nation must in a great measure rely, and *may* be obliged *entirely* to rely, on sea-force for its protection, and must of course regard a navy, which prevents an enemy from effecting a landing, as of superior consequence to an army, which chiefly assists in defending or acquiring distant possessions. He strenuously contends, and employs strong arguments in support of his opinion, that both a knowlege of seamanship and practical maritime skill in regard to the figure or form, the crews, the artillery, the stores, and the stowage, of ships of war, are absolutely necessary in those who are at the head of our marine, and conduct the naval force of this empire. With all the apparent sincerity of patriotic zeal, he laments that national interest has been but too uniformly sacrificed to political views and intrigues, so as to prevent men of real naval experience, abilities, and skill, from being sufficiently long at the head of the Admiralty to introduce necessary and useful improvements. He does not pretend to say that a sea-officer should absolutely understand the construction of ships of war, but that he should know that form or shape which communicates to them certain qualities essential to their preservation or improvement, in order that he may be enabled to give full effect to the activity, the skill, and the intrepidity of those who man them. We extract his observations, the truth of which will scarcely be controverted, respecting the knowlege which is requisite in a person who is intrusted with the command of a naval armament:

‘Having given some idea of the importance of a thorough conception of the complicated machines which come immediately under the management of a person commanding a naval armament; a short sketch of the further knowledge required, may be stated with advantage under one distinct point of view.

‘To direct as the supreme power, a navy upon which the fate of a state may depend, a person should as far as possible, know the condition of the sea force of every maritime power, with the progress each has made in warfare upon the water. The interior management and discipline of their ships is material; and particularly the numbers of practical seamen possessed by each of them, together with the seas they navigate, and the danger they encounter; because it is in proportion to those circumstances that their real power at sea is to be estimated, and consequently may require a superior, an equal, or an inferior force to counteract their operations.

'Geography, in the most extensive meaning of that word, is material to a sea-officer. Particularly, he ought to have a general idea of the navigation of the great oceans, and a true conception of all the latest discoveries which have been made on the face of the earth. The seas, straits, and gulfs, must have been objects of his study, together with the prevailing winds, tides, and currents, in every quarter of the world. And he must be no stranger to the roads or harbours which may admit large ships.

'His knowledge of fortification must not be doubtful, particularly such as may be opposed to ships, with the advantages and disadvantages attending the attack or defence; together with such a degree of knowledge as may enable him to construct defences on the shore, to secure his floating force, according to the latest discoveries on this subject.

'A thorough conception of all the improvements which have been made on artillery, particularly such as may apply to maritime affairs.

'A clear and distinct idea of the most certain means of preserving the health, and securing the affections of British seamen in all situations, and in every climate, deduced from what has actually happened in consequence of the methods which have been pursued for those purposes.

'A comprehensive knowledge of every means to communicate words, or ideas when they cannot be made known by the voice, or by writing: this includes all telegraphical communications with every thing discovered to improve naval signals, and the infinite variety of means by which both these modes of discovering at a distance may be rendered more quick in point of time and more certain in information.

'This subject is of the highest importance in naval war, and claims the particular attention of a flag-officer, because every communication must be made so as to convey the message distinctly to the meanest capacity, in the most speedy and effectual manner, when all other modes of conveying ideas are impracticable, and where the least error may be the total loss of the whole armament, without the intervention of any enemy.

'A general knowledge of the law of nations is necessary to all men who aspire to commands; but it is more requisite to commanders by sea, than it is to those on land. At sea an admiral must judge in the last resort; and if he mistakes that law, he involves his country in war, or produces the necessity of degrading submissions. All that has been written must be present to the mind of the person who is to judge in such a case, and here as in many other situations, a sea-officer must finally act for the government.

'The general state of the relations in which the different governments of the world stand to each other, for the reasons above mentioned, are no less necessary to a flag-officer; and these must be the constant and continued objects of his attention, because upon these the propriety of his conduct may frequently depend.

'And more deeply to impress upon his mind, the weight and consequence of all the subjects which have been enumerated, together with the importance of the machines he has to manage, he will always keep in view the freedom of the *excellent constitution* of government, and the pre-eminent advantages of the *insular situation of Britain.*'

It is almost unnecessary to observe that the Admiral (p. 46.) controverts the truth of the proposition, 'that the duty of the leader of a sea-force neither requires the knowledge nor the abilities necessary for the Commander in Chief of an army,' since this is a subject that will not even bear discussion.

In order to shew that, during war, no sea-officer has presided at the Board of Admiralty for a sufficient length of time to introduce and complete any essential plan of improvement, since Admiral Lord Anson left it; the author gives a table at the end of this chapter, specifying the period during which each naval officer presided there, and the circumstances which brought them into that situation; namely, Admiral Sir C. Saunders, for 2 months, 27 days; Admiral Lord Hawke, for 4 years, 28 days; Admiral Lord Keppel, for 1 year, 7 months, and 20 days; Admiral Lord Howe, for 4 years, 8 months, 23 days; Admiral Lord St. Vincent, for 3 years 2 months, 26 days; and Admiral Lord Barham, for 9 months, 8 days.

The third section contains a review of our naval management, with a plan suggesting measures for its improvement.

Admiral P. reprobates the practice which we have followed for upwards of forty years, of fostering and instructing foreign sea-officers; together with the position that has long been settled and uniformly maintained, that though a navy is and has been regarded as the principal defence of the country, it is not necessary that a naval officer should be a member of the Privy Council; which, although strictly speaking it be unknown to the constitution, is nevertheless the most active power in the state. He then introduces the following judicious remarks:

'It is from a defective knowledge of the characters of prime seamen, that emolument has been injudiciously applied. From hence it has had no effect, and conclusions have been unfortunately drawn destructive to all security. The foundation of any plan to ameliorate the navy, must depend upon a just conception of the steps by which its order and discipline have been deteriorated. The most prominent feature of these steps, was the alarming mutinies which began at Portsmouth in April 1797. Upon this occasion, the whole subject was so grossly misapprehended by the admiralty, as to oblige the government to yield not only to the just and necessary, but to the most injurious demands of the seamen. The principal of these improper demands, were removing officers from their ships at the will of the crew; and adding to the quantity of the provisions, which was ample at the time this unreasonable demand was made. These additions to the expence of victualling the navy, were extorted by the delay of the admiralty in settling the business with the seamen; this consolidated the power which they had assumed; and however unnecessary this expence was, in the thirteen years which have elapsed since those mutinies took place, it must have cost the state many millions. By forming mistaken ideas upon the characters of the leading seamen, and misconceiving their power, this enormous sum has been entailed upon the country: and by undervaluing maritime skill, the discipline of the navy has received a blow, the effects of which are daily apparent, but to which no effectual remedy has been applied.

'The subject of useless, and even injurious expence on the navy, is so copious, that innumerable instances croud upon the minds of seamen, when they review the management of the last thirty or forty years.

'It may, however, be sufficient here to mention the curious idea of one landman employing another landman, for no seaman could have been consulted, not only to model, to build, and to equip, but to rigg, and arm vessels, in a manner, which in their opinions would augment the speed and force of ships, to the astonishment, and beyond the conception of sea-officers.

'This mountain in labour produced a few pigmy monsters, as useless but more ridiculous than the gun-boat scheme already related; and of those wondrous vessels, nothing remains but the consoling remembrance of the sum lost to the nation, by trusting sea affairs to men defective in practical knowledge.

'To these might be added the practicable plan of obstructing the passage of ships in navigable rivers, and in tide harbours, where the effect of strong currents of water in deepening new channels seemed to be so well understood. With the still more ingenious conception of confining a flotilla in a dry harbour, where the deposited mass of stone could be removed by land carriage at low water. And to finish the climax, the adoption of the sublime invention of blowing the largest ships in the air, by gunpowder submerged in an element yielding in every direction so as to destroy the force applied to a point where it must meet with firm resistance. All these schemes being founded on scientific principles, the bare mention of them is sufficient. But it may be necessary to add, the immense advantage of perfecting such plans, in a state which depends on the safety of harbours, on the force of ships, and on the impossibility of destroying them, but by a real and effectual superiority of the same kind upon the water.

'All these mysterious, all these profound schemes, have not only been countenanced, but actually prepared for execution by those who had the management of the naval affairs of this country. And if the task were not invidious, ample proofs might be produced of these scientific measures to advance the power of the state by the very means best calculated to destroy its defences.'

The Admiral's plan for securing to our navy, at all times and on every emergency, the services of experienced, skilful, and intelligent warrant-officers, is extremely practicable, though it will unavoidably be attended with some additional

expence;

expence; and his object in proposing it is clearly expressed in what he calls the illustration:

'In this plan, the measure of raising the warrant officers of the navy into higher estimation is indispensible. The effects of such an estimation have not been understood, otherwise the additions to their pay would have borne some proportion to the diminution of the value of money, which has not been the case.

'The insignificant additions that have been made, have had an injurious effect, by pretending to better the condition of those officers, without having made the amelioration perceptible to the individuals.

'Before any advantage can arise to the naval service, from adding to the emoluments of this class, the offices must be esteemed valuable and respectable in the eyes of valuable and respectable men. This seems to have been the case in the reign of Charles II., when the enemy's force drew attention to the navy. The pay of those officers has been very little raised since that time, and the money is not now of more than one third of the value. At present it seems to have been forgotten, that these offices are the ultimate point to which skilful and honest men are to look forward. When valuable men have bounds set to their pursuits, it is essential that those bounds should be attractive. Constant experience shews, that warrant officers' situations are not attractive.

'Valuable seamen refuse to accept them, or accept them only to desert without being subjected to corporeal punishment, for such is the rule with respect to this class of officers. The warrant officers' situations, especially in small ships, are frequently filled by men of inferior, or of doubtful characters, who encourage mutiny, wink at desertion, and sometimes join the seamen in both these alarming transgressions. To a person long acquainted with the naval service, it is more than perceptible, that such offences against discipline, have lost their atrocity by being so frequently committed. And unfortunately, this frequency has almost destroyed the perception of their effects upon the naval force.

'No objection can lie to the indispensible measure of raising the warrant officers of the navy, by reference to the army. No similar offices exist in the land force.—No army officer bears the least resemblance to a man who must have been trained from infancy to practical skill in a profession, which requires habits of uncommon agilty, as well as the full knowledge of a complicated machine; whose skill is to be exercised in the application of valuable stores to this machine, and of which he is the accountable agent. But what renders these offices still more dissimilar to any in the land force, is the unfortunate necessity of choosing warrant officers from among the men who serve by compulsion, who retain the ideas of such men, and who have manifested those ideas in the most critical moments of dangerous mutiny. To obviate this fatal necessity is the great object of this article, and to lay a foundation for the voluntary service of real seamen is the scope of the whole plan.'

We need scarcely add that we regard this publication as meriting the consideration of politicians.

Art. IX. *A Commentary on the Military Establishments and Defence of the British Empire.* Vol. I. By the Honourable Henry Augustus Dillon, Colonel of His Majesty's 101st or Duke of York's Irish Regiment of Foot, and a Member of Parliament for the County of Mayo. With Plates. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Kerby. 1811.

Under the present political circumstances of our empire, the subject of its defence against a foreign enemy is become very interesting and important. It is to be expected, therefore, that a number of writers will be induced to discuss it; and though, as not being a question of *literature*, it is not strictly within the province of literary critics, it so immediately concerns us as members of the state, that we can neither view it with indifference nor pass over the investigation in a slight manner. We propose, therefore, to continue (as we have lately done) to report at some length the opinions and views of those authors who treat it with attention, with professional knowlege, with skill, or with boldness.

In the article immediately preceding, we detailed the ideas of an intelligent naval officer, and we have now to listen to the suggestions of a gentleman of the army: between whom, as in other similar instances, the professional difference of opinion may perhaps recall to the minds of some readers the old satirical fable of the *Town besieged*. Waiving, however, all ludicrous comparisons, we proceed to state that the volume before us has principally for its object that plan which Admiral Patton so loudly deprecates, (see p. 193.) viz; the converting of this country into a permanent military state, and the maintenance of almost perpetual war. The author takes it for granted that peace is entirely out of the question, during either the present or the succeeding age; and that commerce must therefore yield to the science of war, and be carried on to no greater extent than such as is necessary for supplying the immediate wants of man. He is decidedly of opinion that we cannot obtain that influence in the world which, as a great nation, we have a right to expect, nor enjoy security, without possessing a disposeable force of sufficient magnitude to enable us to act offensively in Europe, and to gain battles in the very heart of it.

The first chapter treats on 'the nature and extent of the king's prerogative with respect to the military service of the subject,' but suggests no remark which appears to us either new or deserving of particular notice. In the second, the author speaks of 'the divisions of the army under different descriptions of force.' He would abolish the old militia altogether, and in lieu of it would add third battalions as *depôt*-corps, to the regiments of the line. The other two battalions, of which he says every regiment should consist, ought in his opinion always to act together in a campaign or on actual service; in order that, if either of them should be much reduced on any emergency, one efficient battalion might be formed out of both. He proposes that the infantry of the regular army should be divided into two distinct descriptions of force, namely, 'the active army of campaign, and the colonial-garrison army.' As to the present local militia, he would retain it, and thus make the force of the country consist of three classes; viz. the regular army, the colonial garrison-army, and the local militia. Chapter III. treats on the recruiting service, the reduction of bounty, depôts for recruits, and provisions for the families of soldiers. In discussing these subjects, Colonel Dillon takes an opportunity of expressing his admiration of the late Mr. Windham's enlightened views and chivalrous feelings. He is a great advocate for limited service, by which he does not mean service confined to any particular district or country, but the enlisting of men for a limited time or term of years instead of for life; and he thinks that the adoption of this plan of recruiting, with the abolition of the militia, would soon reduce the bounty to its original sum, viz. a guinea and a crown. He advises the establishment, in different parts of Ireland, of depôts for the drilling of recruits; and a general depôt at Limerick or Cork, similar to that which is instituted in the Isle of Wight. In the IVth Chapter, on 'the military code,' Colonel D. chiefly investigates, and, we think, ably, the question of corporeal punishment in the army. His observations on this important subject are principally these:

> 'The crimes and offences to which the British soldier is liable, are as follow; mutiny occurs but seldom. The law provides death in that case, and indeed, here, supreme punishment must generally be awarded. Desertion, during a campaign, should always be punished capitally. The law provides also, in certain cases, what we may denominate military transportation; a discretion should remain in the breast of the court, to modify this according to the nature and degree of the offence, and the character of the culprit, to seven or more years in the colonial regiments. Of breach of duty, and instances of disobedience not absolutely amounting to mutiny, there are various kinds, sometimes aggravated by drunkenness, &c.—these should, as far as possible, be defined in the mutiny bill, and should render the culprit liable to solitary confinement, not exceeding twelve days, on an allowance of bread and water; ordering, however, a daily inspection by the surgeon, who is to be responsible for the health of the prisoner, and whose medical opinion the commanding officer must be bound to follow. When a repetition of these offences occurs, the culprit should be remitted to colonial service; or, in the event of confirmed vicious habits, should be sentenced to ordinary transportation, or labor upon the public works, particularly fortifications, for seven or more

years. All offences, of the nature of stealing, which are below the degree of capital offences, should come under the cognizance of a court martial, or a civil court, at the option of the prosecutor, and should be punished as above; for the law as it now stands is oftentimes evaded, the soldier being frequently tried for such offences by regimental courts martial, under a charge of unsoldier-like conduct; and thus the law loses its force, and is improperly administered.

'In the second place a law should be enacted rendering it penal, excepting under certain conditions, to sell spirituous liquors to soldiers in garrison. If the sale of spirituous liquors were restricted to a confidential person belonging to each regiment, there would never be such abuses as too often occur, where the inhabitants of the districts in which soldiers are quartered, make a trade of the health, and often the lives, of the military. This is the case in the colonies; where hardly a day passes without witnessing the most disgusting scenes of inebriety. There the merchant encourages the trader to extend his deleterious traffic, and the trader seduces the soldier to the destruction of his morals, health, and ultimately his life; and this disgraceful practice, annihilating the moral and physical elements of our national defence, is often attempted to be justified, upon the specious plea of encouraging the revenue. It has always been held as a maxim in jurisprudence, that it is better to prevent crimes than to punish them. In fact, the former proposition is involved in the latter; the object of punishment being the prevention of crimes; and if these crimes can be prevented, *ab initio*, so much the more perfect do we render our system. Now as the foundation of almost all crimes and offences committed by the British soldier, is laid in a love of inebriety, let us, above all things, endeavour to remove the temptation, as far as is possible out of his way.

'Now let it be recollected, that if corporal punishment were abolished in the active army, according to the foregoing plan; that is, in all the corps, excepting the colonial corps, to which men are sent for punishment; such a measure would introduce into the service a better description of people; which circumstance would of itself almost supersede the necessity for much punishment; and, in this event, the whole would turn upon the measure of inducing men to enlist as for a profession, and not as a last resource. The whole of the plan must be taken together, and then it will be found that all these enumerated ameliorations will each aid the other; and the entire result might furnish a solution to that most important problem, "what is the best method to be adopted, in order to induce the great body of the people, to feel a lively interest in embracing the profession of arms, so as to give to the military power of a free state, the same efficacy by good will and spontaneous obedience, as the military power of an arbitrary or despotic state extorts by dint of terror, and the exercise of absolute force?" The system of military punishment, recommended to be adopted, resolves itself into these divisions; viz. solitary confinement, service in the colonies, and, during a campaign, even death itself.'

In the Vth chapter, on Military Education, we meet with a number of sensible observations, which, however, we cannot detail.

The VIth is a short chapter, on the Promotion of Officers, and the establishment of Boards of Merit. The author proposes that military promotion should not proceed either by purchase, or even exclusively by seniority, but should be regulated by the reports of inferior or subordinate boards, or courts of merit, to a general board sitting in London, the members of which should frequently be changed, and sworn to render impartial justice. This idea seems to be new, and worthy of consideration.

In chapter VII., Colonel D. treats of the Commissariat, Civil Staff, Pioneer and Pontoneer corps. He points out the necessity of our having intelligent and well informed commissaries, and gives the following plan for establishing permanently a corps of them :

> ' The best mode of accomplishing such an object, would be to form at Woolwich an additional college, in which the same rules should prevail as are now established in the colleges of the artillery and engineers. The students should be admitted at the same age ; and the rank they should afterwards hold should be the same, or at least analogous to those of the rest of the army. Their duties, both at home and abroad, might be more extended than those of commissaries on the present establishment. For instance, at home, during a period of peace, or when not employed in an active campaign, they might, according to their respective ranks, act as store-keepers, barrack-masters, &c. ; and, employed in war, branches of this division of service, without interfering with the province of engineers, might carry on the duties of guides, pontoneer or pioneer officers ; — they might superintend the opening of roads, under the direction of the engineers, or, if necessary, the construction of bridges. When the proper officers are appointed to every part of the service, it goes on much better, than by having recourse to mere expedients, as must be the case when works are to be performed, or duties entered on, without the help of an appropriate corps. Besides, this plan will diminish the number of regimental officers detached on the working parties. This is a matter of considerable advantage, for the number of regimental officers suffers continual diminution during a campaign, and they have at all times sufficient employment in attending to the internal economy of their respective corps. — Now, what shall we deem the necessary qualifications for such a corps ? First, a knowledge of modern languages ; the students in which might be arranged in classes, as for instance, the German class, the Spanish class, the Indian class, &c. An accurate knowledge of geography is indispensably requisite, with a capability of geological calculation, and all the theory of *reconnoissance*, upon which the French have at this moment so largely written, and upon which they lay so great a stress. — That this should be known to a corps of commissaries, such as we have recommended, is evident ; because if an army is to depend upon them for subsistence, they should previously be able to reconnoitre the country, and to determine the route by which stores of every sort are to pass in due quantity, proportioned at once to the wants of the army, and the resources

of each district. During a term of peace, the young commissaries should be sent abroad to travel into all parts, likely to become the theatre of succeeding wars. Here they should collect the details, and make the most minute reports of every thing connected with their profession; which documents should be carefully laid up in the archives of the college, where they would furnish matter of instruction and information to others. *

'Let us consider with what feelings of satisfaction, and with what firm confidence, a general officer would embark in a command, attended and assisted by a commissariat such as we have described. With a commissary-general trained in such a school, from what a weight of anxiety would his mind be relieved! how encouraging would be the reflection, that the whole subsistence of his army must be provided for upon the surest footing; and that this important department has been so correctly constituted in all its branches, and so highly accomplished in every material point. There appears to be but one mode of attaining this desirable object; and that is, clearly, the due instruction of those who are to be employed as commissaries. Whether or not, the best plan possible has been here recommended, remains with others to decide; but that the principles upon which it has been argued are just, few will venture to deny.'

The subject introduced into the next chapter is the Cavalry. After some observations respecting uniformity in our system of equitation, the improvement of their arms and armour, the formation of the studs, &c. the author thus expresses his sentiments in regard to the species of cavalry that should be employed, and the application to be made of them:

'Having premised thus much, let us proceed to state what improvements might be suggested respecting our cavalry. In the first place, we may observe, that caprice, or fancy, has, in every service in Europe, introduced various descriptions of cavalry, in different gradations; but, if we examine the matter duly, it must strike us, that for real utility in war, two kinds alone are necessary; namely, either heavy cavalry capable of charging in force, and at the same time possessed of sufficient activity; or extremely light cavalry. As we propose to treat, in the second part of this book, of the mixed tactics and manœuvres of cavalry and infantry, this cannot be the place for such a discussion; it may suffice generally to observe, that no battle, where the ground will allow it, can ever be completely decided without a due and proper mixture of horse and foot. It being the peculiar province of the heavy cavalry to fight in the line, to assist the infantry, and to form the main support of the battle, it must evidently appear, that the horse must be continually exposed to musquetry; and from the largeness of the object aimed at, the effect

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'* During the intervals of peace, the French have long made a point of studying countries in Europe, Asia, and elsewhere, with military eyes. It is well known, that even their consuls and civil residents have been men of military education.'

of the fire is extremely destructive to cavalry. What therefore remains to be done? It is simply this; to provide the heavy cavalry with defensive armour. The French have found this necessary, for they have at least fourteen regiments of cuirassiers. That our heavy cavalry should all wear defensive armour, may be proved by the clearest reasoning. The breast of a dragoon is the part at once most vital and most exposed to musquetry; his head is also much exposed, not only to musquet-shot, but, in close encounters, to the stroke of the sabre; for these reasons, all our heavy cavalry should be armed with the cuirass, and should wear brass helmets.[*] The light cavalry are most efficient, serving as hussars, with two flank troops of lances. The utility of lances is very great, when judiciously mixed with hussars; as, for instance, it often occurs that, in the advance of an army, towards the close of day, when the horses are fatigued, and the enemy are drawn up at the opening of a valley or in front of a post, the impetus of the charge with fatigued horses will want a sufficient momentum to break a solid column of fresh cavalry, where the trooper is merely armed with a sword: but with lances it is another case; they are almost sure to break through. The hussars, both in a general battle, and also in a skirmish, should be always at hand to co-operate with the lances; for the latter are not so efficient in close action, although of great use in breaking a line. Placed on the flanks of a column of cavalry in a retreat, they render the column impenetrable to all attacks of the enemy's cavalry; and in the pursuit of broken infantry they do great execution. It would furnish an admirable improvement to our light cavalry, to select the most able-bodied and the best horsemen, and to place them in the lance squadron. Both the French and Spaniards, in the present war, find the utility of this species of force. With regard to the other equipments of the cavalry, the hussar saddle is found by every army in Europe to be the best for general purposes, for all descriptions of cavalry, both heavy and light. It is the most durable, not so liable to get out of order, the easiest both for man and horse, and it gives the greatest uniformity of seat; possessing these advantages, it should be generally adopted in the cavalry. Our bits are cumbersome, they render the horses' mouths dull, and the men's hands heavy. There is no occasion for the bridoon, one bit is sufficient; and, as the Duke of Newcastle observes, the less iron in a horse's mouth the better: a simple canon with a joint in the middle, straight branches for the light cavalry, similar to the Spanish cavalry bit, and curved branches for the heavy cavalry, will give the horses better mouths, and the men lighter hands, than any other. But one most important point to be mentioned is this; viz. the total abolition of snaffles as watering bridles, which ruin the horses' mouths, and spoil the men's seats; for in going to exercise and to water, they hang on the bridle. Cavessons should be to adopted in their place, which will have the contrary effect; and cavessons should be also used in dressing the young horses.'

'[*] The cuirassiers and lances having no occasion for carbines, that incumbrance might be laid aside.'

Colonel Dillon approves of the bridle invented by Charles XII. of Sweden, and recommended by Marshal Saxe, as simple and commodious, being a sort of cavesson with two branches.

In the IXth chapter, the author treats of Infantry. His remarks are here very brief, and he confines them to the equipment of troops; telling us that in a second volume he intends to consider fully the mode in which they should be taught to march, according to the science of mechanics, so far as it affects the loco-motive faculties of soldiers.—Chapter X. relates to the permanent defence of England, and the mode of resisting invasion. Colonel D. supposes our defensive force to be divided into two species, namely, the levy *en masse*, and the disposeable troops. The first he is pleased to call a local insurrectionary force, and the last, moveable columns; including under this denomination the troops of the line and the local militia. To the head of insurrectionary force, he refers that of great cities, battalions of volunteers formed of armed citizens, and that of towns under a certain size, of villages, hamlets, and even single houses, or an armed peasantry. He would restrict the volunteers to large and populous cities, except the yeomen-cavalry, which he says should be warmly encouraged. As to the armed peasantry, he proposes to put arms in the hands of only one-third of those who are enrolled, at once; and he would employ the remainder, in case of invasion, in performing the duty of pioneers.

With regard to the defence of this island, and the impossibility of our enemy's landing on it in sufficient force for the purposes of conquest, while such a disparity exists between our and their marine force, as at present prevails, or even while we have any thing like a superiority in that respect, we entered into that subject so minutely and circumstantially in our examination of Lord Selkirk's* and Captain Birch's pamphlets †, that we cannot now exceed our limits by travelling again over the same ground. We will therefore only observe, on this occasion, that Colonel Dillon has taken for granted the feasability of such a landing, which we have formerly maintained to be impracticable, and which we conceive is demonstrably so; and from this false datum he has drawn a number of erroneous inferences.

The Colonel next devotes himself to the consideration of the proper defence of Ireland. This is a long chapter, and more than one-half of it is occupied with a sort of statistical account of that island, and with observations on the moral and physical qualities of an Irishman. His plan of defence for that country consists of an extensive system of fortified towns, and intrenched camps. This project speaks so sufficiently for itself as to require no comment.

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* See Rev. Vol. 57. N.S. p.161.

† Ib. Vol. 56. N.S. p.72.

The XIIth chapter discusses the foreign military policy of Great Britain, which, the author says, is threefold; first, its own defence; secondly, its obtaining such a weight by conquests of colonies, or by its relative influence on the continent of Europe, that its commercial operations may be carried on without interruption; and thirdly, the noble policy of assisting the weak against the powerful, and the oppressed against the oppressors. — General observations on war occupy the last chapter. The author very properly recommends extensive summer-camps, for different bodies and descriptions of troops to go through their exercises and manœuvres together, and thus prepare themselves for military operations in the face of an enemy or on actual service. His general sentiments may be learnt from the close of this chapter:

> ' It is therefore IN THE HEART OF EUROPE that we must gain battles, if we wish to obtain that influence which we have a right to expect, or even that security which is the object of war. But we cannot gain battles without possessing a large and efficient disposable force, and this we must not expect with the numerous militia defensive force now on foot.
>
> ' Let us not despair of seeing such a system acted upon and completed. Let us not despair of seeing, in the plains of the south of England, an army arrayed as if for instant war, in a camp of toil and fatigue, no way differing from a scene of actual warfare, except in the loss of lives; a camp in which the spade and pick-axe must not be idle; in which the infantry, even without the assistance of engineers, shall be exercised in the construction of all sorts of works adapted to defence or attack; in which the cavalry must study to season their horses to endure every kind of weather, and to subsist on every species of forage. By constant employment, and continual practice, has our navy been formed; from the result of their prowess, they have seldom occasion to engage in battle; but yet are they constantly in war; contending, at least, with the elements, — a war of toil and danger; varied, at long intervals, with seasons of actual hostility and consequent glory. Shall we not place the army in a similar situation? we may then expect similar results; — undeviating victory, whatever opposes them.'

In the first chapter of the appendix, under what the author calls '*A view of tactics in general*,' after having repeated an axiom respecting evolution which was laid down by the late General Lloyd, Colonel D. speaks of 'the cardinal movements of troops,' or such as are either perpendicular or oblique to the base line; of 'the cardinal formations or constructions of bodies of troops,' which he says are three; namely, 'the extended

tended order, the profound or deep order, and that of the parallelogram or square;' of 'the secondary movements of troops,' which he reduces to wheeling, and to filing, or any prolongation of the body perpendicular to its base; of the 'uses of the cardinal movements and formations;' and of the 'properties of secondary or internal movement.' He then introduces one of General Lloyd's orders of battle, with a plate of illustration; an 'order of attack on an army posted in a strong position,' with a plate of exemplification; and an 'order of retreat in an open plain,' with a delineation and description. In the second chapter, the author treats on 'the cadenced step.' After several remarks on the powers and configuration of the human frame, he proposes a plan of preparatory instruction for marching, which he considers as adapted to them. The third and last chapter relates to 'firing:' but the Colonel's manner of considering projectiles is somewhat lame and defective; as well as, to a certain degree, incorrect.

This work closes with five tables of the settings of farms in the west of Ireland, to which a reference is made in the chapter on the defence of that island; and a postscript, in which the author informs us that he intends, in his second volume, to examine particularly whether the Prussian tactics be not derived from those of the antient Greeks and Romans.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1811.

NOVELS.

Art. 10. *Thinks I to myself.* A Serio-ludicro, tragico-comico Tale. Written by Thinks I to myself who? *3d Edition, with Additions.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Sherwood and Co. 1811.

The first volume of this truly comic performance contains much good-humoured satire, and displays a natural and easy turn in the dialogue which brings all the personages as it were before us. In the new edition, the visit of Mrs. Fidget and her family is improved by a spouting performance of her little boy: the distress of *Clod-pole* at the ball is inimitably described, with his wishing so much that it were possible to dance with his father or mother; and his project of going to sit with the fiddlers, &c. The breakfast-scene with his tutor, when he receives a message from Emily, is also excellent: but we hear too much of the *bumpings* of his heart; and his reasoning this sensation into a malady is too broad a burlesque for the rest of the work. Mr. and Mrs. Dermont are described at the end as being models of conjugal affection, wisdom, and piety; an idea that is inconsistent with the worldly and artificial manners with which they are at first painted.

Some of the poems are very indifferent; and the story being nearly finished in the first volume, the second is by no means equal to it in humour and originality.

Art. 11. *Frederic de Montford.* By the Author of "The Pursuits of Fashion." 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Ebers. 1811.

Many of the common *traps* for popularity are *set* in this novel, such as the names of Royal Dukes, gallant Generals, and various *fashionables*, introduced at full length; together with some amusing specimens of the language of the turf. It appears to have been hastily written. The hero is not altogether a pleasing character; and his naval friend Captain Bluffbank is made to use language which would be fit only for his boatswain. The author himself talks of a 'a *hugeous* pair of Hessian boots,' and asserts frequently that '*he dares for to say*.' He also employs intemperate expressions, calling attornies 'ministers of Satan;' and giving to physicians an appellation equally ungentle. Nevertheless, we found in some passages a novelty of idea and a vein of humour which announce talents that would be equal to the production of a more meritorious work.

Art. 12. *Gotha*, or Memoirs of the Wurtzburg Family. Founded on Facts, by Mrs. S——. 12mo. 2 Vols. 13s. Boards. Chapple. 1811.

We inquire not whether this story has received its birth in the recesses of a brain in which the heroes of many novels were assembled; or whether, as the title-page imports, it is founded on facts which have been rescued from the dust of ages. In the latter case, however, we venture to predict that they will soon "return to the dust from whence they came:" but they will bury with them no moral errors, though many grammatical imperfections, since the tale is as harmless as it is insipid. The author talks of a lady 'going *incognito*:' but she gives some well meant disquisitions on dangerous writers, and observes 'that it is not such works *as are* impious, profane, or indecent, *as are* the most alarming!' Vol. i. p.10.

Art. 13. *Frederick*; or, Memoirs of my Youth, interspersed with occasional Verse. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Miller. 1811.

The author of this novel is evidently a young man, but he has displayed very considerable abilities in the present composition. It abounds with lively sallies of humour, and manifests no contemptible acquaintance with the best productions of Grecian and Roman literature. The principal faults of it are an overcharged caricature of the ridiculous in the leading personages of the story; and, at times, a warmth of colouring in the amorous incidents of that story, which (exclusively of the frequency of classical quotation) renders these volumes not the most proper candidates for admission into the lady's library. We deem it necessary to state this, because the title, the size, and the *pink* appearance of Frederick, would be likely to catch the eye of the fair reader. Yet we should not do justice to the author, if we were not to observe that he has uniformly endeavoured "to set the passions on the side of virtue," as far as the *result* of the immoral actions of his characters can have that tendency: though, as in most similar cases, the punishment of vice comes too late to counteract the evil effect of the description of its moments of enjoyment.

The usual routine of the first stage of a college-life is here delineated with sufficient accuracy; — a little severely treated, perhaps, but on the whole with too much truth. On this subject, we have not room to dwell at present: — but we may return to it at some convenient opportunity.

The style of this work deserves but little commendation. It is careless, and full of the ordinary specimens of an uncultivated taste. The closer imitation of those classical models, which the author has studied with some success, would greatly benefit him: but, on the whole, we must allow that he has produced an entertaining tale, very much above the usual stamp of novels. Let him, in any future publication, (and we hope to see him again in print, *after due time and consideration*,) avoid not only the errors which we have already pointed out, but carefully shun the recital of vulgar conversations, interlarded with oaths and low expletives. This is an egregious fault, into which Smollett, and some other superior novelists, have betrayed their numerous imitators.

We conclude with a short specimen of the author's poetry, which we have selected because the scope of the passage is to convey the moral of the whole story.

'Extract from Lines written during Illness.

'As in lone thought, with retrospective view,
I look my course of youthful follies through;
Reflect on years unprofitably spent,
In abject sloth, or senseless merriment;
The heedless days recall, the sleepless night,
The lawless revels of impure delight.—
Where is the single talent well applied?
Oh! where is God, the giver, glorified?
No! on the surge of stormy passion tost,
Religion's chart, and Reason's rudder lost,
The wild wind's sport,' &c. &c. &c.

EDUCATION.

Art. 14. *Simple Pleasures.* Designed for young Persons above twelve Years of Age. By Miss Venning. 12mo. 3s. 6d. bound. Harris. 1811.

When country-walks and a game at chess were proposed to the Regent Duke of Orleans, the reason which he alleged for declining them was, "*qu'il n'aimoit pas les plaisirs innocens;*" and this answer involuntarily occurred to us as we perused the volume of 'Simple Pleasures' with which Miss Venning has provided us. This work is, however, intended for readers between the ages of twelve and fourteen years; and to such it will certainly be innoxious, and may perhaps prove both instructive and amusing. The fair author has composed it according to the plans and hints contained in Mr. Edgeworth's book on "Practical Education:" but she carries his system too far when she describes a girl who receives exactly the same education as her brother, and is afterward taken into partnership with him, and made a clerk in her father's counting house!

Art. 15. *A New Introduction to Reading*; containing many useful Exercises, or Lessons, adapted to the Capacities of Children of either Sex, from six to twelve Years of Age. By the Rev. G. I. Davies, A.M. 12mo. 2s. bound. Lackington and Co. 1811.

The materials of this little book are not original, but the plan of it is in some measure new; since the compiler has arranged his reading and spelling-lessons so as to furnish progressive studies during a long period of education. His selections appear well adapted both to amuse and to improve the pupil; and, notwithstanding the great number of school-books which already exist, we think that no parent or teacher can regret that the present publication is added to the list.

NATURAL HISTORY *and* MINERALOGY, &c.

Art. 16. *View of the Mineralogy, Agriculture, Manufactures, and Fisheries of the Island of Arran.* With Notices of Antiquities, and Suggestions for improving the Agriculture and Fisheries of the Highlands and Isles of Scotland. By the Rev. James Headrick. 8vo. pp. 395. 10s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

The island of Arran, which lies on the west coast of Scotland, and in the mouth of the Frith of Clyde, is about 24 miles long, and from 12 to 15 miles broad; not 34 or 35 miles in length and 15 or 20 in breadth, as the present author most erroneously conjectures. Of this large extent of surface, not more than 15,000 acres, it is said, are capable of cultivation; and the quantity of land at present under actual tillage does not much exceed 10,000 acres: from which it appears that the mountainous districts and waste lands, the greater part of which is in a state of commonalty, constitute by far the most considerable proportion of the superficies of the island. The net rent is about 5000l. per annum: but, in Mr. Headrick's opinion, by dividing, inclosing, and improving the waste lands, the value might be quadrupled. The Duke of Hamilton is proprietor of the whole island, with the exception of five farms, three of which belong to the Marquis of Bute, and two have continued in the possession of a family of the name of Fullarton, since the time of King Robert Bruce. The population of Arran amounted in 1801 to about 5000 souls; and it would appear that the inhabitants are chiefly employed as farmers and fishers, or as both at different seasons. The antiquities of the island afford little that is worthy of notice; and its civil records seem to present nothing of peculiar interest.

The natural history of Arran, and especially its geological history, including in its details both primary and secondary rocks, has of late furnished more ample subjects of investigation. In this point of view, the island, from the distribution of the rocks, admits of a natural division into two great districts; which may be denominated the *granite* and *sand-stone* districts, the former occupying the northern, and the latter comprising the southern division of the island. The mountains in the central parts of the northern division are composed of granite, which probably belongs to the variety described by Dr. Davy as containing a portion of potash, by which it is more liable to decomposition. This is the case with most of the specimens of granite from Arran which we have had an opportunity of examining. Goatfell, the loftiest of the granite mountains, rises to the height of 3000 feet above the level of the sea. A great body of micaceous schistus reposes on the flanks of the granite mountains, and on the west side of the granite district reaches to the sea: but on the other sides of these mountains, it is succeeded at a lower height by breccia or pudding-stone, and red sand-stone. Within the limits of the same district, lime-stone appears in some of the vallies, and in different places on the sea-shore; and a stratum of coal, of that variety which contains no bitumen, burns without flame, and is hence called *blind* coal, has been discovered: but the seam appears to be too thin and of too small extent to be worth working.

The *Sand-stone* district occupies the southern region of the island. It is chiefly of a red colour: but in some places white sand-stone, well fitted for the purposes of architecture, is found. On the west side of the island, the spacious caves of Drummadoon, which are among the chief objects of curiosity to strangers, are formed of rocks of this description.

Some of the hills of inferior magnitude are composed of basalt or whin-stone. The same rock is frequently seen in detached masses on the shores in different places, where it occasionally presents groups of regular columns. The island of Lamlash, which forms on the east side of Arran an excellent harbour for the largest ships, consists almost entirely of this rock. The whin-stone also appears in all parts of the island, traversing the other rocks in the form of veins or dykes. Pitch-stone, which is likewise distributed among the other rocks in the same manner, is more abundant in Arran than in any other part of the British dominions. Common roof-slate has been wrought in this island; and we have seen some beautiful specimens of pistazite or acanticone, one of the lately discovered minerals, in acicular crystals attached to this slate.

Of Mr. Headrick's merit as a mineralogist and geologist, the present work will not enable us to form a very favourable opinion. All his descriptions are extremely tedious and ill-digested; and the vain attempt to revive the obsolete phraseology of Dr. Walker shews not only an injudicious partiality for a system which was never established, but is a sure proof of his deficient information with regard to the progress of natural knowlege for the last twenty years. The gross indelicacy at page 197., we assure the Reverend author, has no alliance whatever with any thing like wit or humour. — Mr. H. is not more distinguished as a zoologist. The natural history of the animals of Arran is exhausted in about four pages without a single reference to any system. — Botany is not once introduced.

Mr. Headrick appears to be a sanguine projector. Among other speculations, we are not a little amused with his proposal for establishing iron manufactories in a country which seems destitute both of fuel and of the raw material. Of his plan for the purification of common salt, according to a new method proposed by him, in conjunction

junction with Dr. Coventry, Professor of Agriculture in the University of Edinburgh, we can form no opinion; since no hint is given of the nature of that part of the process at least by which the magnesian salts are to be separated.

POLITICS.

Art. 17. *A Letter to Henry Brougham, Esq. M. P.* on the subject of Reform in the Representation of the People in Parliament. By William Roscoe, Esq. 8vo. 6d. Johnson and Co.

It is contended by the opponents of reform, (a numerous and formidable phalanx!) that any considerable alteration in the representation of the people would be subversive of the constitution. If we speak of the *practical* constitution, this is certainly true; for if the Commons House of Parliament were formed on the pure principle of a representation of the people, the existing preponderance of the Crown and of the Aristocracy in it would cease: the consequence of which would be that Government must be conducted on a new plan. In a little time, this new plan would be found far preferable to the old one, with all its system of influence, not to say corruption: but, so strong are the prejudices and the interests of the most powerful in the state against the adoption of the scheme of reform, that, we confess, we perceive little chance of its being realized. If a disposition existed to try the experiment of a reform, we think entirely with Mr. Roscoe that it ought to be done by one decisive measure, in preference to a succession of measures; we also concur with him in believing that an uncorrupt and independent House of Commons would be a great blessing to the country, and that we may ascribe almost all the evils which have happened to us, from the fatal commencement of the American war to the present time, to the want of such a house: yet we very much fear that the disease is now become so inveterate that the consent of the great will never be gained to any effectual project of reform. Could such a law be obtained, it would, as Mr. R. remarks, be as easily carried into effect as a turnpike-bill; the whole difficulty consists in procuring the consent of the three branches of the Legislature. He mentions the resolution of those in office, and of possessors of borough-influence, 'to retain all or lose all;' and it is very well understood that every possible exertion will be made to keep things as they are. Sensible, therefore, as Mr. Roscoe's pamphlet is, and much as we approve his principles, we do not expect that any effect will be produced by the publication of this letter; except it may be the gratification of the friends of reform, who will be pleased at having their scheme so ably advocated.

Art. 18. *A Letter to William Huskisson,* Esq. M. P. on his late Publication. By a Proprietor of Bank-Stock. 8vo. 2s. Richardson.

The writer of this letter was the author of a pamphlet published about the beginning of the Bullion-discussion, and intitled "The real cause of the depreciation of the national currency explained." In our review of it (Vol. lxiii. p. 182.) we passed some animadversions on an exaggeration, which he acknowleges, in his preface to the present work, to have existed in his words, although it was very remote from his meaning; and in proof of the latter he makes reference to a former publication, in which he had expressed opinions exactly coincident with our own on the subject in question. He now addresses Mr. Huskisson; and the principal point on which they differ relates to the circulation of country-banks. Mr. H. considered them as an evil no otherwise than as they were affected by the anomalous condition of the Bank of England, and seemed to desire no farther interference with them than the obligation to pay, as in the case of the metropolitan bank, in cash. His correspondent, however, regards the country-banks (p. 16.) as seriously injurious to our money-system; and he recommends that, without waiting for the resumption of cash-payments, they should be obliged to call in all their notes under 5l., by which means our small notes would consist wholly of those of the Bank of England. The advantage of this measure would, in his opinion, be felt in a diminished paper-currency; the temptation, which at present operates with country-bankers to extend their issues of small notes, being removed.

To those who accuse the Directors of the Bank of England of desiring a continuance of the Suspension-Act from interested motives, we would recommend a perusal of this writer's sentiments. Though personally a proprietor of bank-stock, he is not the less strenuous for the repeal of the act; under the conviction that the enhancement of the small proportion of his property vested in bank-stock would be a poor equivalent for that depreciation of the remainder, which would follow a perseverance in the present irregular system. The public should be aware that the Bank-Directors (at least the judicious part of them) must entertain a similar opinion, since they have only a portion, and in general no considerable portion of their fortunes, vested in bank-stock. Whether they have acted under this impression is a different question: the author of this tract would appear to think otherwise, being very pointed in his ridicule of the conduct of the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank, whose behaviour before the Bullion-Committee he describes in the following terms:

'On the first day of his examination, Governor Whitmore came boldly forward, single and unassisted: but, dismayed by the number and closeness of the questions put to him by the members of the Committee, the doughty knight never ventured again into the field without being attended by his trusty squire, Deputy Governor Pearse. With this *fidus Achates* by his side, he contrived to stand his ground in several engagements with the redoubtable Committee; but the two champions, conscious of the superiority of the enemy, prudently stood on the defensive; and, by dint of manœuvring, shifting their position, and avoiding a close encounter, directed all their efforts to effect a retreat from an enemy they were unable to withstand.'

More of political remark occurs in this than in many of the bullion-pamphlets. The author shews himself a resolute opponent of Mr. Perceval's ministry, and is decidedly adverse to affording facilities to government for the extension of their supplies.

'All governments,' he says, 'are naturally spendthrifts, and like other spendthrifts, increase their profusion in proportion to the facility with which they can raise money to feed their extravagance. Another fatal consequence, resulting from the same cause, is the encouragement it gives ministers to involve the country in unnecessary wars. And I think I may be at least allowed to doubt whether the country would not be in a more prosperous state than it is at present, if a less extensive credit had afforded government fewer opportunities of multiplying their expences and extending their hostilities.'

Those of our readers, who have attended to our reasoning on the political effects of the Bank-Suspension, will not fail to observe the coincidence in that respect between our views and those of the writer of this letter.

POETRY.

Art. 19. *The Maid of Renmore:* or Platonic Love; a Mock-heroic Romance, in Verse, with burlesque Notes, in humble imitation of modern Annotators. Crown 8vo. Boards. Slade.

Were we to express this writer's mental physiognomy by the pictorial art, we should represent a countenance marked by satire, and a mouth extended by grinning. Both in verse and in prose, such a sort of laugh is kept up as puts our professional gravity to rout. When a poem opens thus,

> 'The Power of Women and the God of Love,
> *The Dust of London and the rural Grove,*
> I sing:'———

and when the author himself speaks of his performance as 'a mere attempt to excite amusement,' in contempt of all critical rules or discipline, the best part that we can act is to let him grin on, and, putting our fastidiousness in our pockets, to enjoy the humorous exhibition with the rest of the crowd. It is thus that we shall treat Lorenzo, the poetical name of the author. Let him run riot with his sylphs and gnomes; let him take what liberties he pleases with verse and rhyme; let him plunder and parody; let him satirise and ridicule all that he chooses; let him have his jeers at Platonic sentiment, and be crazy with passion for his Amanda; we shall not, by interfering, spoil his sport, nor by any unlucky remark get ourselves posted as a set of *flats* not *up to the fun.* We could whisper Lorenzo, however, that his *fun* is too long-winded; and that Amanda would have lost none of her charms, had we been introduced to her without the necessity of pacing through two thousand lines to get a peep at her. It will be admitted that these lines are enlivened by several touches of wit: but that wit would not have been injured by condensation. The length of the notes is designed to expose to ridicule that immoderate annotation, by which modern poems are as much overloaded as are the modern stage-coaches with passengers and luggage.—Having excused ourselves from giving an analysis of the machinery of this mock-romance, and from *boring* the reader with the exploits of sylphs at the beginning of the poem, or with the more triumphant *manœuvres* of the little god Cupid at the end of it, we shall be contented to make a short extract, and let the account of London speak as much as it can in favour of the author in the double character of satirist and poet :

> ' Oh wonderous city, thus Lorenzo cried,
> Oh ! monster mix'd of meanness and of pride !
> Prodigious vortex, where incessant flows
> A tide of follies, luxuries, and woes :
> To which as to a centre knaves *resort*,
> Where filth and luxuries alike are *bought* ;
> Where every street of exhibitions full,
> The foible tells of credulous John Bull :
> Where quacks, who proffer life, are leagued with death,
> And draw out fortune while they draw out breath ;
> Where contradiction through the whole prevails,
> Where regal palaces are built like goals ;
> Where wretched buildings hide the great and grand,
> And public temples half-deserted stand ;
> Where stiff-neck'd charity receives the poor,
> 'Mid halls and domes of rich entablature,
> And wealth retires to miserable streets,
> 'Mid darkness, filth, and pestilential heats ;
> Where virtue dies, knaves live, and luxury brings,
> Perverse, a brood of all prodigious things,
> More than the sickliest fancy could conceive,
> Or all the ancient Satirist believe,
> Whips, chemists, sophists, thieves in female shapes,
> And men turn'd asses, puppies, bears, and apes.'

To shew that the writer has allusions of all sorts, we shall quote a brace of similies, one heroic and the other burlesque :

> ' This said, he vanished, while a strong perfume
> Enrapt the downy sense, and filled the room.
> Not great Achilles, when his mother bore,
> And strew'd before him on the Trojan shore
> Fresh from the forge, the bright, the thund'ring load,
> Vulcanian arms, the labour of a God !
> Nor Huntington when he received his breeches*,
> And hung in rapture o'er the heavenly stitches,
> Felt half the transport, wonder, or delight,
> Which seized the hero, on that signal night.'

The doctrine inculcated in this poem is

> " That all Platonic ends in mortal love ;"

an indisputable maxim, we believe, if people begin to love *time enough*. When the head is " silvered o'er with age," Platonic love is very convenient and suitable.

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* The story of the preaching Mr. Huntington, S. S. (or " *Sinner Saved*,") and his leather-breeches, we believe is known to most of our readers. *Rev.*

Art. 20. *The Modern Minerva;* or the Bat's Seminary for Young Ladies. A Satire on Female Education. By Queen Mab. 4to. 3s. Printed by Macdonald and Son. London.

Wit and Satire are here happily combined; and the subject is managed with so much pleasantry and point, that it is impossible to read this poem without the warmest gratitude to Queen Mab. Perhaps "the Peacock at Home" suggested the idea of bringing the birds to school: but it is well executed; and the modern mode of female education is at once neatly and keenly ridiculed. Indeed, so adroitly is the fable sustained in all its parts, and so admirably is the ridicule pointed from the Bat's Seminary against the too common practices of our "establishments" for female education (as they are now called) which surround the metropolis, that we should not be surprised to hear that the author of "the Peacock at Home" was the Queen Mab on the present occasion. All the qualities of playful satire are here displayed in the account of Miss Bat; who, observing the success of an owl that in the same forest, kept an academy for juvenile birds, opens a seminary for females in a neighbouring ivy-bush, and, by the help of the usual advertisements, obtains double "the limited number" of scholars:

'Miss Bat styl'd her mansion the Ivy Bush House,
And chose for her teachers the Weazle and Mouse,
Who being reputed her distant relations,
Were equally proper for such situations:
Her credit and dignity made her keep two,
That the head Gouvernante might have nothing to do;
Her days might in pleasure and ease be enjoy'd,
Though decorum requir'd her seeming employ'd,
Lest the teachers presuming should fancy it right
To be dressing and gadding from morning to night;
But no such indulgence to them could be known,
Till they manag'd to pick up a school of their own,
All previous arrangement at length being made,
And cards of the school-regulations convey'd
To birds of all feather, they flock'd round the dame,
Till her "limited number" near double became;
But cautiously waiving this breach in her laws,
It was pass'd over muster among other flaws;
And each noble matron believ'd it a rule,
Meaner birds were excluded this superfine school;
Not supposing inferior beings could dare
With the offspring of grandeur to breathe the same air,
And rejoic'd to imagine the ivy so big
That her darling might roost on a separate twig.'

The lady, growing proud on the success of her school, resolves on the adoption of a French name; a device which is often practised by mistresses of boarding schools, to catch the ear of people of fashion:

'Plain Bat was so horridly vulgar, she vow'd,
That the whole clan of vermin and reptiles, by dozens,
Might claim her alliance as hundredth cousins;

So determin'd the Public in future should see,
On her cards of admission, *Madame Chauvesouris*;
As a school must of course rise in merit and fame,
If the Governess boast of a Frenchified name.'

The preference, in the modern system of female education, given to accomplishments rather than virtues, and the importance attached to dress and gew-gaws, are well described:

'Like the Virtues, they do very well in their places,
But what are the Virtues, compar'd to the Graces?
These polish the casket, admirers to win,
Those merely resemble the jewels within:
And about such minutiæ to trouble the head,
Madame and her teachers were much too well-bred.'—
'For why should a lady, of feeling so nice,
Be scar'd with the phantoms of virtue and vice?
No fetters a soul so superior should bind,
But the pure laws of Nature, conveniently kind:
These she follow'd in practice, and copied in dress;
No vot'ry of Venus was cumber'd with less—
Her refinement consider'd it quite a mistake,
With superfluous drap'ry to shackle the make,
In 'kerchiefs and frills muffled up to the nose,
Or bundled in petticoats down to the toes:
Apparel should flutter transparent and airy,
Like the form of a sylph in the film of a fairy:
Some few articles might be for ornament worn,
Which, instead of concealing the person, adorn;
As broaches, clasps, armlets, chains, lockets, and rings,
In glitt'ring profusion around her fair wings,
Or delicate bosom, were not so absurd,
For she lik'd to be reckon'd an elegant bird.'

All the effects of Miss Bat's, or rather of *Madame Chauvesouri's* plan of accomplishing young ladies, are displayed in her pupils; they become conceited, flippant, and give themselves a thousand airs. To shew off her *smart Misses* to the best advantage, *Madame* contrives, on the approaching vacation, to give a grand fête, in order to rival the owl; prepares a throne for *herself**, on passing which her pupils were to do her homage; and speculates, after the holidays, on a more "genteel situation:" but all these fine doings have a sad termination; Grimalkin disperses the feathered party assembled at the fête, *Madame* loses her school, her castles in the air vanish, and she laments that she ever quitted her ivy-bush,

'Where, but for romantic ambition and pride,
She might have liv'd happy and peaceably died.'

Some of the lines are deficient in point of quantity: but, in this composition, the humour rather than the correctness of the verse constitutes the chief merit. Parents who have daughters to educate should read *Queen Mab*; and, having first laughed at her wit, let them then reflect on the lessons which, under the guise of a fable, she means to inculcate.

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* This circumstance, we are told, actually took place at a boarding-school, on the late Jubilee.

Art. 21. *The Rhapsody*, or a Wreath for the Brow of Bonaparte. 4to. pp. 75. 5s. stitched. Bell. 1811.

This gentleman's rage is legitimate, for it is patriotic: but his verse tallies not with his noble feelings. E. G.

> 'Fear not my trespass on your critic plan,
> I can but little—will do all I can.'

So little indeed is done, that we lament, for his sake and for the sake of those whom he would celebrate, that he has attempted any thing. What can we say to such couplets as the following?

> 'I see my country, with her foes beset,
> And think of English holly and the bayonet.'
>
> ''Tis Britain's glorious deeds I ponder on—
> The deeds of Stuart, Graham—Wellington!'
>
> 'If I succeed, though but with one or two,
> It is the little towards—the all I'd do.'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 22. *Memoirs of the Life of Mrs. Sumbel, late Wells*, of the Theatres Royal, Drury-Lane, Covent-Garden, and Haymarket. Written by Herself. Including her Correspondence with Major Topham, Mr. Reynolds, the Dramatist, &c. &c. &c. 12mo. 3 vols. 1l. 1s. Chapple. 1811.

Mrs. Sumbel's rambling and desultory performance offers but little instruction or entertainment to any class of readers. It abounds in severe animadversions on many of the most respectable of the servants of Thespis; and it only serves to shew, on the part of the fair and frail authoress, that she has been very imprudent and very unfortunate. The conduct of her children towards the once celebrated "Cowslip" appears, indeed, by this publication, to be highly reprehensible; and they are required either to deny the charges of their parent, or to shew cause for their neglect.

We found only two passages in these volumes which in any degree fixed our attention. The first is an account of the ghost so currently reported to have appeared to the late Lord Lyttelton; which account Mr. Miles Peter Andrews is here said to have related to the authoress; and which, we understand, that gentleman, *who also saw a ghost* on the occasion, is not likely to invalidate. This is one of the strangest stories of the kind that has been in circulation within our recollection. As the witnesses to its incidents much exceed, in respectability, those who have testified to some late extraordinary tales of the same nature, we were disposed to extract it for the amusement of our readers: but, on consideration, we judge it hardly fair to the authoress to deprive the book of almost its sole attraction.— The same reason prevents us from quoting the explanation of the rumour relative to a certain august personage and Mrs. Wells, which was circulated a few years since.—As the lady is at present a dependant on the Theatrical Fund, we would not willingly diminish the success of any literary attempt which may contribute to her assistance: but we are obliged to say that a great part of this work is filled with most trifling letters from her various correspondents; and that, as a specimen of book-making, we have never seen any thing that exceeds the Appendix; in which, among the other equally proper subjects for publication, is the copy of a tailor's bill to a Mr. Samuel, for sundry coats, waistcoats, and pairs of breeches!

Art. 23. *Travels of a British Druid*; or the Journal of Elynd: Illustrative of the Manners and Customs of Ancient Nations; with appropriate Reflections for Youth. To which is added, a History of the Doctrines of the Druids, and of their final Extirpation in Caledonia. 12mo. 2 Vols. 9s. Boards. Hatchard. 1811.

We think that this publication is calculated to answer the purpose of its author, who says in the preface that these 'volumes of Historical Travels being adapted *for their* perusal *they* are presented to the juvenile readers of Britain, as not unworthy *their* attention.' The book, indeed, contains a considerable portion of information; which, if not always accurate, may yet on the whole be found useful to school-boys: but it would, perhaps, be difficult to select a sentence of more aukwardness than the above, which we have just quoted, even out of the two volumes before us, which are written throughout with a discreditable carelessness of expression. The author seems not to have considered that compositions, which are intended for the perusal of youth, should attempt to attain the double end of instructing them in matter and in manner. Little sollicitous, however, as he has been concerning his style, he has certainly deserved the higher praise to which he lays claim. After having observed that he has 'endeavoured to avoid chronological errors as much as possible,' he continues,—'nor will the fatiguing details of Pagan ceremonies, and their immoral rites, *of* which the generality of ancient travels are so prolix, *be here met with*.' We certainly find nothing immoral in the work: but, as to 'chronological errors,' we cannot expect minute accuracy in this point (nor is it, perhaps, necessary in such a work) from an author who writes so loosely as to state that, 'at the period *marked* in these Travels, (more than four centuries before the Christian æra) *Greece and Rome were rising into celebrity*: but Britain then could claim no such distinction, and its inhabitants were still a barbarous people, notwithstanding the wisdom and learning of their Druids.'

No originality of research is affected by the present writer. All the classical part of the Travels, we mean that which is occupied by a survey of Greece and Italy, is extracted from well-known authors; and that which relates to the Druids is equally a compilation from recent works, not from the antient authorities. This portion, however, of the performance is the most interesting, as relating to subjects less generally known than those which are discussed in the preceding parts of the volumes.

With the exceptions which we have made to the merits of the 'Journal of Elynd,' we are disposed to recommend it to the notice of those for whom it was written. It may occupy a place in the Juvenile Library, by the side of the Travels of Cyrus, though lower on the shelf; or, at all events, it must not presume to a station in the row which is rendered attractive by the volumes of Anacharsis: unless, indeed, its motto be that piece of advice which Statius has borrowed from the modesty as well as from the genius of Virgil, when, with reference to the Æneid, he addresses his own poem as follows:

—— "*longè sequere, et vestigia semper adora.*"

Art. 24. *A Letter upon the mischievous Influence of the Spanish Inquisition*, as it actually exists in the Provinces under the Spanish Government. Translated from *El Español*, a periodical Spanish Journal, published in London. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson and Co. 1811.

To the hope that we shall be able to deliver Spain from her unprincipled invaders, we add the hope that we shall be instrumental in delivering her from herself; for we believe that no country ever stood in more need of being purged of bigotry and intolerance. Let her remain catholic if she chuses, but let her Catholicism be without heretical conflagration. If she remains as she has been, with her Inquisition and her *Autos da fé*, she is not worth saving, and the interests of humanity require a change in her government. About thirty years ago, a poor maniac was executed by the Inquisition at Seville, and we are told that 'the greater part of the people are disposed to look quietly on the repetition of such scenes.' Can this be a fact? If it be, the people of Spain are a miserably degraded race, and want that kind of re-generation which the circumstances of the times are likely to effect. The Inquisition, as the writer of this letter shews, is oppressive even in its present state of slumber; and by its *index expurgatorius*, it still debars the inquisitive student from the perusal of all books which are likely to improve the mind. So habituated, however, are the Spanish people to the operations of the Holy Office, that its entire suppression is not recommended, but merely a regulation of it founded on the following basis:

'1. The power of judging crimes, merely anti-religious, to be vested in the bishops.

'2. These to sit and pass sentence in public, and the accused to be confronted with the witnesses against him.

'3. The Bishop to impose no other than spiritual punishments, for which he requires no coercive authority whatever.

'4. The ecclesiastick censure to have no civil effect, so that all the barbarous laws against heretics, which are now in force in the Spanish Codex, be abolished.

'5. The Bishops shall take care that the books they judge to contain pernicious doctrines, be combated by learned men in their confidence; but they shall not be permitted to pass censures for merely perusing a book. 1st. Because there is a wide difference between reading opinions and adopting them: 2dly, Because, if the perusing of books is to be opposed by excommunications, those only can be read in the different dioceses which agree with the opinions of the bishop.'

Such a regulation would in fact be a very complete subversion of the Inquisition; for if discussion be allowed, truth will make a progress, arguments in favour of toleration will be urged with effect, and time, that great reformer, will ultimately cause religious liberty to be as much venerated in Spain as in other parts of Europe. The feeling heart must sympathize with the Spanish people in their present sufferings: but it is gratifying to think that their mental condition must eventually be improved, and that the arm of persecuting bigotry is likely to be paralyzed.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 25. *A New Translation of the Forty-ninth Psalm*; preached before the University of Oxford, at St. Mary's, June 3, 1810. To which are added, Remarks, critical and philological, on Leviathan, described in the Forty-first Chapter of Job. By the Rev. William Vansittart, M.A., Rector of White Waltham, Berks. 8vo. pp. 98. Rivingtons, &c.

Provided that real information be imparted, we ought not to quarrel with the vehicle of conveyance; we may, however, be allowed to say that had Mr. Vansittart consulted us on this head, we should not have recommended him to clothe his learned criticisms in the form of a *sermon*, not even of an *University-sermon*; because, unless the members who heard it had been desired to bring their Hebrew Bible and Septuagint to St. Mary's, the discourse of the preacher could not have been heard to advantage. The text, indeed, (*They lie in the hell like sheep*, &c. Ps. xlix. 14.) must have convinced them of the necessity of a new version; for surely it will not be maintained that sheep lie in hell. We take notice of this aukward phrase, because the preacher does not refer to it; and we now proceed, with as much brevity as we can here employ, to report the substance of the comments and of the alterations proposed. Considering this psalm as a dialogue between a religious believer and a profane scoffer, Mr. V. first divides it into the parts belonging to each; and, by the different rendering of a few words, it is made to 'exhibit the providence of God asserting a deliverance from the grave, and the mission of an Ambassador to abolish the power of death.' We have not space, in this confined department of our Review, for any enlarged notice of this new translation; and it must suffice to state that the principal alteration will be found in the 14th verse. Instead of rendering the word וְצוֹרָם *et forma eorum*, "and their beauty," as it is in the Psalter and Bible versions, this learned preacher proposes to translate ציר an *ambassador*, or צור *rock*, borrowing the idea of the LXX and the Vulgate, *ἡ βοήθεια αὐτῶν*, *auxilium eorum*; and he thus exhibits the whole passage:

'14. They are laid in the grave like sheep *in a fold*;
Death shall shepherd them;
But the upright shall rule them at morning,
And their Ambassador shall arise from his glorious habitation
To abolish the grave.'

In a final note, Mr. V. quotes De Dieu, who, in his work on the difficult parts of the Hebrew text, gives the same view of this passage.

The appended remarks, critical and philological, on the Leviathan described in the Forty-first chapter of Job, occupy twice the space of the sermon, and call, perhaps, for a fuller report than in this place we can bestow. To set at rest the question, what animal is meant by Leviathan? Mr. V. has repaired to new and curious sources. Travellers, naturalists, and even hieroglyphics, have been called in on this occasion; and the whole evidence here adduced tends to prove, we think beyond all doubt, that the Crocodile is the animal intended. This philologist deems it necessary to ascertain that the writer of the book of Job was acquainted with Egypt, and of course that the crocodile of the Nile was likely to find a place in his catalogue of animals; and his remarks are satisfactory on this point. A passage from Herodotus is pertinently adduced, to illustrate some peculiarities in the Thebaid Crocodile mentioned in verses 3, 4, and 5: but, when we come to the word לשׁנוֹ (*his tongue*,) we seem to be completely *at fault*, since it is an ascertained fact that Nature has denied a tongue to the crocodile. What must be done in this case? Mr. V. proposes an alteration by which he gets rid of the difficulty. He removes the cholem from the שׁ, and takes ל to be the sign of the dative case; then the noun which remains is שֵׁן *dens*, *scopulus*, and the word new pointed לְשִׁנּוֹ is fairly rendered *in dentem ejus aut nasum*; and thus on his teeth or snout, and not on his tongue, the cord is fixed. The testimonies of the antients, in regard to the sacred honours paid to the Crocodile, and respecting his docility and the ornaments with which he was decorated, are confirmed by the representations of this animal in his state of godship, that have been found by modern travellers on the walls of Egyptian temples.

After having distinctly considered the several parts of the description of Leviathan, Mr. V. sums up the result of his critical inquiry. He places the account of this animal, given in the book of Job, under three heads: *his parts,—his great might,—and his well-armed make.* Under the first and third of these, the Crocodile is described as a naturalist would describe it; under the second, he is magnified as a god. Some parts of the description may refer to the manner in which the priest delineated the sacred crocodile, and some expressions to the strong colouring of Eastern poetry. Mr. V. has taken great pains in bringing together the evidence which was necessary to the full elucidation of the proposed subject, and his learned readers will not be reluctant in awarding to him all the praise which he can require.

Some *corrigenda* are noticed in the last page: but not all. Even the title to the Hebrew text of Ps. xlix. (see p. 21.) has an egregious erratum, viz. מזמיר for מזמור.

Art. 26. *The Apostolic Ministry, compared with the Pretensions of spurious Religion and false Philosophy*, preached at the Rev. John Thomas's Meeting-house, Founders'-hall, April 5, 1810, before the Monthly Association of Ministers and Churches, Patrons of the Academy at Homerton, for the Education of young Men intended for the Christian Ministry among Protestant Dissenters. By John Pye Smith, D. D. 8vo. pp. 61. 1s. 6d. Conder.

This extended discourse is highly creditable to the learning and abilities of Dr. Smith; who, in depicting the childish glosses of the Jews, and the presumptuous theories of the Greeks, has given a just view of the system which passed for religion and philosophy at the period when the gospel was first published, and has in course explained the nature of those difficulties with which it had to contend, in addressing itself to the then most enlightened classes of society. Descending to modern times, he offers his reasons for concluding that 'the bigoted superstition of the ancient Jew, and the deceitful philosophy of the flippant Greek, have found their parallel, or rather have been completely out-matched, by the corrupt religion and usurping wisdom of our own age.'

To the conduct of Jewish and Ethnic teachers, Dr. S. opposes the humble, ingenuous, liberal, and dignified behaviour of the apostles in the ministry of the gospel. Having detailed the several features of the apostolic ministry, he applies his subject with a reference to that academic institution in behalf of which he pleads, and of which he is a distinguished ornament. Such a discourse will certainly aid the funds of this dissenting college, which we are concerned to learn have been of late inadequate to its support.

Art. 27. *The Deity and Filiation of Jesus Christ:* being the Substance of two Discourses, addressed to a Society meeting for Worship in Grape-lane Chapel, York; and published at their Request. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

By the phrase, a *Society meeting for Worship*, we should have been inclined to suppose that the arguments here compressed into one sermon were delivered to a Society of Friends, vulgarly called *Quakers*, had not the word *Chapel* subsequently occurred; by which, we believe, a Quaker Meeting-house is never designated. However, by the calm and dispassionate manner in which a point of great controversy is discussed, the self-command of *a Friend* is again indicated. The author, whoever he may be, will be satisfied with our reporting him to have well arranged the texts which he adduces to prove the deity and filiation of Jesus Christ: but if the doctrine of the Trinity (as is intimated in the preface) be peculiar to the New Testament, or rather to the Christian Dispensation, ought not the preacher to have abstained from quoting any passages from the Old Testament? When he adds of the Trinity, 'that it may be conjectured to be not so much a *radical* and *original*, as an *assumed* distinction of the divine nature,' we confess ourselves unable clearly to comprehend his purpose.

Art. 28. *The Claims of Jesus of Nazareth examined:* delivered in the Jews' Chapel, Church-Street, Spitalfields, Aug. 19, 1810. By the Rev. Thomas Raffles. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Black and Co.

Before we can address ourselves to the Jews with any tolerable prospect of success, on the claims of Jesus of Nazareth, it appears to us very necessary to obtain first from them a list of those prophecies which they consider as referring to the Messiah, and, in the next place, a statement of their objections to the authenticity and evidence of the evangelical history. Without some preliminaries of this kind, our exhortations to the Jews for their conversion must, in their estimation, be ludicrous.—In wishing that this nation could be brought to receive the pure religion of Jesus, we coincide sincerely with Mr. Raffles: but if we are to reason with the Jews, it is our duty to recommend fair play. Though Mr. R. may have wished to argue closely and demonstratively, we fear that he will prove nothing to the conviction of the Jew, because he has taken no pains to secure any common ground on which the parties at issue are agreed. He may contend that Is. 7. 14. refers to the Messiah; but the Jews maintain that the very title of the chapter precludes the possibility of such an application; and if he quotes the prophecy of dying Jacob, the Jews will ask, "If it has respect to Jesus of Nazareth, why is it not quoted in the N. T.?"—Mr. R's sermon manifests ability: but his language is not always that of mild persuasion, calculated to thin the synagogue.

Art. 29. *Gratitude to God for National Mercies:* preached Nov. 18, 1810. By Robert Young, D.D. Minister of the Scots Church, London Wall. 8vo. 2s. Williams and Co.

For causes of thankfulness to God, Britons are directed by Dr. Young to the palace, the temple, and the field; and they are taught to congratulate themselves on having a virtuous monarch who is the kind father of his people, on enjoying the full blessings of religious liberty and Christian worship, and on receiving from an abundant harvest sustenance both for man and beast. An enthusiasm of loyalty and of patriotic attachment pervades this discourse, which was preached on the day appointed by authority for the public acknowlegement of the divine goodness in the abundance of the last year's harvest. Our national mercies are depicted in the warmest tints, and no dark shades appear on any part of the picture: the circumstance of dearness is not mentioned in conjunction with plenty; nor are bankruptcies and taxes introduced as *set-offs* against our national prosperity.

CORRESPONDENCE.

No mistake has occurred with regard to the publication which is the object of inquiry from A. H. of Edinburgh: but the Editor cannot be answerable for the time which is occupied in the examination of books; and he can only say that, when he receives the report of the one in question, it shall have a place.

An answer similar to the above must be given to our Correspondent in Cornwall, who writes respecting a volume of Sermons.

Stipen, also, is referred to the preceding notices.

Dr. Clarke's letter is received, and we beg to offer our best acknowlegements for his polite *invitation*.

⁂ The APPENDIX to the last volume of the Review was published on the 1st of October, with the September number, and contains a variety of articles on interesting FOREIGN BOOKS.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For NOVEMBER, 1811.

Art. I. *Letters of Anna Seward,* written between the Years 1784 and 1807.

[*Article concluded from* p. 127.]

We return with interest and with pleasure to this agreeable miscellany, and this additional proof of the capability of the female mind for literary cultivation and disquisition. It will be admitted, we think, by every reader of these letters, that they might have been intitled *the Opinions of Anna Seward on various Subjects;* and since they are for the most part the result of reflection and good sense, expressed without fear, in a style at once clear and nervous, her correspondence, though originally private, is well worthy of public exhibition. A poet herself, she steps forth the avowed champion of modern poets; she protests against that partiality of the classic scholar, which so generally operates against the fair claims of existing genius; and, a true Englishwoman in her feelings, she seems animated with a patriotic ardor, while she contends for the superlative merit of many of our home-productions. So far is she from complimenting the antients at the expence of the moderns, or from uttering desponding sentiments over these "evil times" in which no brilliant genius illumines our hemisphere, that she ridicules the idea of decayed talents, and brings forwards our British poets as occupying pre-eminent rank in the court of the Muses. We honour her enthusiasm in a literary warfare against those who assert that the 'well-spring of genuine poetry is exhausted;' though it is an enthusiasm which at times swells into a passion, on her perceiving 'a native want of attention (as she expresses it) to works of poetic fancy.' According to her, the Nine were never more liberal of their favour than to the bards of Britain, and it is in the English language that their richest gifts may be traced. 'Never,' says she, 'since Shakspeare's time to the present hour, did England want a number of metrical writers, fully competent to give honour and credit to the national poetry.' In her panegyric on the moderns, she frequently reminds us that 'living writers are always judged of by their worst performance, and deceased ones, and especially the long deceased ones, by their best.' She laments that we have no nationality respecting poetic productions; that the taste for prose-compositions predominates; and that our bards of the present day, in spite of their originality and sparks of true genius, cannot tower to that fame and patronage to which they are intitled. Writing to her friend, Court Dewes, Esq., in a letter dated Lichfield, April 9, 1788, she thus displays the literary honours of the present times:

'And now, ere I say adieu, I must fight you a little more upon the old ground. I feel a zeal, something like that of patriotism, for the honour of my own times, since I also feel assured, that their claim to poetic splendour transcends that of any former period. What you say, however, is perfectly just about the lack of poetic patronage. In that respect, but in that only, is our age less Augustan than that of Anne. But impartial comparison can demonstrate, that all sort of fine writing is in much greater abundance. Perhaps that very abundance forms the chief reason why genius is so much less distinguished than it was in those days. Its radiant lights, running into confluence, are not so conspicuous as when they were fewer in number. The times of Swift and Pope had no lyric poet. Ours have four very resplendent ones, Collins, Gray, Mason, and Warton. One of these four, considering the superiority of his subjects to those of Pindar, and the at least equality of his imagery and numbers, may fairly be styled the greatest lyrist the world has produced. Shenstone excelled all his rivals in the pastoral walk. In professed satire, we have a Juvenal and an Horace in Churchill and Johnson; since, though the former was Johnson's model, the polished elegance of his verse is Horatian; while a new species of satire, in the heroic epistles of Mason, has perhaps hit the true tone of satire better than any of them. In blank-verse, Cowper disputes the palm with Thomson in his descriptions; with Young, in the nervous rage of moral philippics. Surely Mr. Hayley's verse breathes a more creative and original genius, than even the brilliant Pope, who excels him in nothing but in the high and laboured polish of his enchanting numbers; while Mr. H.'s prose has the ease and wit of Addison, with much more strength and spirit. Amidst all Johnson's faults, the greatness of his abilities has amazed and dazzled the whole literary world. Then, what a mine of original wit are the writings of Sterne? How brilliant in that property the comedies of Hayley and Sheridan! To the names of all these eminent men, that have adorned the last half century, we may add those of Akenside, Lyttleton, Beattie, Langhorne, Dr. Warton, Holme, Jephson, Jerningham, Owen Cambridge, Whalley, and our new star, Mr. Crowe, to say nothing of our many Sapphos to the single one of Pope's time. — Surely, surely you are prejudiced against our day a little, after the manner in which Lord Shaftesbury was prejudiced against his, who asserts, in the Characteristics, that the period which you call transcendent, was wholly barren of genius and wit.'

Though Miss Seward is among the number of those persons who think that the style of Addison has been praised beyond its merit, and though she approves of 'the growing Latinity' that Johnson introduced, yet, with a partiality truly English, she is contented to confine her pleasures to the perusal of the productions of her native soil:

> 'Religiously do I believe, that the mass of genius, accumulated in this country since Spenser's time, is far greater than any other nation can boast. Under this conviction, I am perfectly content to limit my delights in that charming science within the pale of my own exquisitely rich and harmonious language; the growing Latinity of which has already, indeed has long, rendered it sufficiently vowelled, sufficiently sweet, copious, and sonorous, to do every justice of sound to the sentiments, the allusions, the impersonizations of genius.'

Of the various kinds of poetic composition, Miss S. manifests great partiality for the sonnet; and she considers the floating pause as one of its chief beauties. A letter to the Rev. R. Polwhele, dated May 25, 1792, has this passage in reference to the sonnet:

> 'It concerns me to find that you have been so unfortunate in the loss of your infants; yet, to how sweet a sonnet has that loss given birth! The general fault, to my taste, of the sonnets in this collection, is, their want of the Miltonic breaks at various parts of the lines; which breaks appear to me a necessary characteristic in that species of measure, from having accustomed myself to consider the best of Milton's sonnets as its proper model; yours to your infant Maria has the break, or floating pause, and with that property, every other charm that can endear it to the heart and the imagination.'

Her correspondent, Mr. Hardinge, delights her with his admiration of Milton's sonnets, and particularly of the pastoral monody, Lycidas:

> 'I am glad to hear that Milton's sonnet to Laurence is peculiarly dear to you, who are so warm and just an admirer of many of its brethren. I could never read it without a pleasure that thrilled through my brain. O! such winter days, and such winter evenings, how they spangle over existence like a few bright stars in a gloomy horizon. This is certainly the most *touching* of Milton's sonnets; but that to the soldier to spare his dwelling-place is the most sublime. How we love to see the great man asserting the claims of his own genius with manly firmness, and declaring its inevitable claim to confer lasting celebrity!
>
> 'I am charmed to find you amongst the adorers of Milton's Lycidas. That is a test-composition; and to read it without pleasure—to *have* read it without frequent recurrence, argues a morbid deficiency in the judgment and in the affections. I know that it is reprobated by Johnson; but false criticism, on the pale horse of that des-

pot, is the pest of the present times, trampling beneath its " armed hoofs" the richest and rarest flowers of genius.

It does not appear, however, that the nephew of the great Lord Camden and the clergyman's daughter at Lichfield grew enamoured of each other, as the interchange of opinions became frequent. The lady saw, or thought that she saw, that the fine gentleman looked down on her as on a being of subordinate rank; and, with feelings of very commendable pride, she resents this indignity, in her turn treating with contempt his fastidiousness in the line of verbal criticism:

' You have a verbal queasiness about you, which amounts to disease. I hope you like that elegant word. Upon uncontrovertible authority have I set a little dozen words upon their joint stools in the poetic fane, which you have attempted to kick down stairs; but I trust they will maintain their station.

' From the extracts I sent you, you have, by this time, received proof, that I did not call Addison's serious prose a water-gruel style, without having found it so, at last in some instances. Nothing wearies me like prosing about and about the good cardinal virtues in their old robes; but I like to see them glittering in the bright armour of Johnsonian eloquence.

' Addison always appeared to me as tautological in his solemn prose as in his verse, when he says,

" So the pure limpid stream, when foul'd by stains
Of rushing torrents, and descending rains,
Works itself clear, and as it runs refines."

' There can be no partiality in my boundless preference of Johnson's style, as a moral essayist, to Addison's. I am ready to confess the superiority of the latter in playful composition. Addison died before I was born, and Johnson hated me; against whose writings am I most likely to be prejudiced? But, in truth, I never suffer either personal affection, or dislike, to operate upon what I read. So if, as you insinuate respecting these two celebrated authors, I am blind to excellence, and feel myself fired with rapturous approbation where no excellence is, the defect lies in my taste, and in my judgment.

' Your wit runs strangely away with you in criticizing poetry, or surely you would feel the happiness of Mr. Hayley's simile for the fine luxuriances of genius, lopt away by criticism, when he compares them to Samson shorn by Dalilah, of his strength-giving tresses. Similies are not expected to be minutely exact; it is enough, if the general resemblance is striking.

' That author did not mean that time had made the frolic compositions of Chaucer *heavy* as lead — he uses not the word, but says " dark as lead." Time, rendering their language obsolete, may well be allowed to have made that metal dim or dark as lead, that once was brilliant as steel and gold.

' And what! — is Hayley's illustration of the bounds which prejudice affixes to genius, by an allusion to the pillars of Hercules, supposed, by the ancients, to fix the limits of the world; is that too sublime for your comprehension? You! the classical, the learned! "And who's blind now, Mamma, the urchin cried."

'I could dissect many of Milton's sublimest passages, place their imagery and phrases in a ridiculous point of view, with the same ease that prejudice against the moderns induces you to ridicule fine passages in Mason and Hayley, and that envy induced Johnson so to criticise the beauties of Milton, Prior, Gray, &c. &c. Behold a mirror to such critical sophistries.

"Soon as they forth were come to open sight
Of day-spring, and the Sun, who scarce uprisen,
With wheels yet hovering o'er the ocean brim,
Shot parallel to th' earth his dewy ray."
Paradise Lost, Book 5.

'When we place the sun in a chariot, we may mention its wheels; but personifying the sun as the word *his* implies, and arising from slumber, we must not give him wheels instead of legs.

——————"And the thunder,
Wing'd with red lightning, and impetuous rage,
Perhaps has spent its shafts, and ceases now
To bellow through the vast and boundless deep."

'Natural history is here violated; the properties of lightning are transferred to the mere noise made by its explosion. Thunder is in itself innoxious; and, after all, this dread instrument of Jehovah's wrath is turned into a bull, and *bellows*.

'But O! while I thus transform myself into one of those unfeeling critics, of whom my spirit is so impatient, how sincerely do I abjure such sickly accuracy; like that by which you were jaundiced in your strictures on the beauteous extracts I sent you from Mason and Hayley. A nervous and manly understanding ought to shake such verbal prudery to air, as "the lion shakes the dew-drop from his mane."'

On the subject of Epithets employed in poetry, Miss S. is at issue with Mr. Hardinge, who roughly calls the lady *an epithet-monger*. In letter lxxii. p. 333. she says, 'The feeble make-weight epithet I dislike as much as you can do—but the plenteous use of judicious picturesque epithets is vital poetry.' This remark she amply illustrates; triumphantly observing,

'It would be a fine opiate truly to read a descriptive poem, in which the author should talk of hills, and vallies, and rocks, and seas, and streams, and youths, and nymphs, without giving us the picturesque noun-adjective, which alone conveys to us any distinct idea, what sort of hill and valley, rock, ocean, stream, youth, or maid, he means to place before us.'

To the literary sparring which Miss S.'s correspondence with Mr. Hardinge displays, is added something of a less playful kind; and her mortification is very apparent:

'You seem to think my writings infected by the affectation of using uncommon words. I hope not; but I choose, and always shall choose the strongest which spontaneously occur, to express my idea, whether in prose or verse, if the idea is elevated; mindless whether they do, or do not form a part of the fashionable vocabulary of Lord Fillagree and Lady Pamtickle. When I converse in such circles I stoop my style to their level, but I *write* for other kind of persons.'—

'I know you do me honour in giving yourself the trouble to reform what strikes you as defective in my own writings, and as erroneous judgment on the composition of others; — but, differing so materially about the component parts of a receipt for making beautiful style, I am not likely to improve by your corrections. You are in high life, I am in obscurity, from which I do not wish to emerge, since peace is dearer to me than distinction. Our acquaintance is not in common, therefore anecdote can seldom be interesting. Why therefore should we pursue our correspondence? I shall be happier in giving my epistolary leisure to friends whose more congenial tastes ensure a warm welcome to all my communications, than to you, who are so often disgusted with my style both in prose and verse, especially since I cannot wish to slacken its nerves, because it is *naturally* energetic; and to become light, it must be light by affectation.

'Suffer me, then, to bid you a long adieu, with a grateful sense of your desire to have instructed, and of the great amusement your wit afforded me, ere my relish of frolic humour was lost in the gloom of a Parent's death-bed.'

The correspondence, however, with Mr. Hardinge, was not here broken off, and his fastidiousness is the subject of renewed complaint in subsequent letters: but, if Mr. H. was a too fastidious critic on poetry, and took up antipathies to certain words without any good reason, Miss S., on the other hand, contended for carrying the *licentia poetica* too far. Her opinion respecting rhymes will not be sanctioned by men of sound judgment. 'Bad rhymes (she says) occasionally mingling with good ones relieve the ear, as in music it is relieved by the intermixture of discords.' (Vol. ii. p. 221.) The two cases are not similar. On this point, however, we shall not enlarge, but shall change the scene to afford some relief to our readers.

Miss Seward's politics make as distinguishing a figure in these volumes as her poetry; and her sentiments are strongly and repeatedly expressed. At first, Mr. Pitt is 'the political saviour of his country, "a second Daniel;"' and Mr. Erskine, who opposed the minister's war-system, is represented as dealing in 'Belial-eloquence:' but she soon changes her tone, loses all confidence in Mr. Pitt's wisdom and integrity, pronounces his measures 'tricking expedients,' embraces Mr. Fox as the people's friend, and bestows the highest compliments on Mr. Erskine. Though at first an admirer and afterward a hater of the French Revolution, she vehemently reprobates our rushing into the war as in the highest degree impolitic; she despises Mr. Burke's 'eloquent ravings,' and ridicules that species of religious cant which we are apt to mix up with our hostile measures. Alluding to the death of Mr. Pitt, she begins a letter thus:

'At last

> "The extravagant and erring spirit hath hied
> To his dark confine,"

covered with the lavished blood of slaughtered millions, and answerable for the anguish of millions surviving to mourn the slain.'

Towards the conclusion of the correspondence, she exclaims, with a sort of poetic rage:

'Whither can our frantic and impotent ministers be sending their continental expeditions? slaughter or imprisonment their certain fate. Our allies now see that British incendiarism, which has ended where it was always likely to end, in their destruction and vassalage, in its true light, and leave us on the brink of that precipice down which we have precipitated them.

'When our wretched politicians are standing in blank and terrified astonishment,

> "Spectators of the mischiefs they have made,"

while they are declaring, at last, the true and imminent danger of the country; are robbing every poor man of his liberty, by military coercion, fatal at once to freedom and to commerce; those who hold the reins of government are sending our soldiers by thousands and tens of thousands, out of these dominions, without one rational object, one probable hope; — their valour and their lives sacrificed in vain attempts to commit useless outrages upon triumphant and impregnable France; to destroy, with bombs and shells, a few French houses and their guiltless inhabitants; or again to find ignoble graves amid the dikes of Holland, or to perish in impossible attempts in the dreadful climates of northern Europe; and this at a juncture when every British soldier will be wanted to defend his country from the long-provoked attacks of the invincible soldier, the unequalled General, who, by that stupid and mad assailance which we have stimulated, is risen to an extent of power unexampled as it is formidable, and from whose *certain invasion* reconcilement alone can save us.

'O generation of madmen, who in hours like these, are vindicating our foolish ministers by crying out, "We must do something!" can no dire experience awaken you to a sense of the misery of obliging your country to become the seat of war? My very soul is sick of idiotism so big with universal danger, horror, and anguish.

'And those who are so crying out, are echoing the *if* of the vanquished — "If England had sent twenty thousand men into Poland, Bonaparte had been defeated and the allies victorious."—Look at the fate of British armies in La Vendée! at Quiberon, in Holland, in

Turkey! and be thankful that their blood did not swell the torrents that flowed in vain on the fields of Auerstadt and Friedland.'—

'Alas! the fate of our armies in South America has anticipated that reasoning of yours on the subject, which I dare assure myself is all demonstrative truth; and O! the dreadful business at Copenhagen! — eternal stain on British faith, justice, honour, and humanity! The majority of the nation, obsequious to the powers that be, will

——— ——— "With necessity,
The tyrant's plea, excuse the devilish deed;"

and when in the end it has produced real mischief to this country, instead of fancied advantage, the general and almost inevitable fate of all evil actions, they will continue to do, what they have done through the whole course of this disastrous war, lay the consequences of ministerial guilt and folly upon the over-ruling power of Providence, and bring forth some obscure texts in the Revelations about calves and candlesticks, as shadowing forth the fate of France and England. O! it is ill for states, as for individuals, when they choose to incur certain and atrocious guilt, rather than distant and contingent danger.'*

To her anathemas on our modern system of war-politics, we should be happy to add her interesting account of Captain Hastings, who was wounded at Copenhagen while in the act of succouring a respectable Danish family: but we must restrain our pen, and only refer the reader to letter 69, vol. vi.

In the next place, let us take a glance at this lady's sentiments respecting religion. Though bred in the bosom of the Established church, she did not accede to all its doctrines; and her correspondence with the Rev. R. Fellowes appears to have somewhat modified her faith. Referring to Mr. F.'s "Picture of Christian Philosophy," she says;

'How happily have you removed that dire impediment to rational faith, the doctrine of original sin, which the revived Calvinistic school, of which Mr. Wilberforce is the head, so injudiciously presses upon the attention of the public. Its mystical tenets are read and extolled (in preference to those of the authors who represent Christianity as a system of consistent justice, mercy, benevolence, and happiness) from the same disposition, which makes children delight more in perceiving objects of terror presented to their imagination, than those of beauty and pleasure; but no mischievous or obstinate child is rendered gentle or docile by the dread of spectres; neither have the fanatic tenets any tendency to reclaim from vice or irreligious thoughtlessness. The licentious, or giddy votaries of fashion wish to have an excuse for persisting in their career, and think they have found it in the dark and cruel difficulties in which resumed Calvinism involves Christianity. They say to themselves, "We cannot, in the high-day of our youth and passions, feel all this prescribed misery, which, we are told, is essential to appease our Maker for having created us full of cursedness and sin; we cannot sacrifice all our amusements, even those which are generally allowed to be innocent; and since less sacrifices are fruitless; since the Rock of Salvation is too steep and rugged for our strength, we may as well strew all the sensual flowers over the paths which lead to our destruction; if, indeed, the Deity is this hard task-master, and if he created so large a part of mankind vessels of wrath; if all are obnoxious to punishment ere yet they know the nature of crime."

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* The following remark, though true, we should not expect from the pen of a woman: 'Every hour more and more convinces me that love of war is the worst quality which can belong to a prince of Great Britain; the lust of wine and women is far less criminal in a king than the lust of blood.'

'Such is the certain mischief of Mr. W.'s doctrine, and that of his coadjutors. They transfer the hairy mantle, the tedious pilgrimage, and the voluntary scourge, and all the dark train of monkish self-inflictions, from the body to the mind. If voluntary wretchedness for less than atrocious sin, for the curse of our nature, not self-incurred, be indeed a duty, what, alas! must be the nature of that power who enjoins it?

'O that your volume, in which righteousness shines as a sun, in the pure beams of justice, of mercy, and of earthly happiness, may so gild the gentler ascent from the gulfs of impiety, that its hapless votaries may not despair of attaining the pure summit!'

With the affection and tenderness of an amiable daughter, Miss Seward long "rocked the cradle of the declining age" of her father: but, when death had broken the tie which confined her to her home, and her own indisposition forced her to try bathing and change of air, she visited Buxton, Scarborough, and the sea-coast of North Wales; residing at times with friends whose society and habitations, in sites of the most picturesque and romantic scenery, afforded her the highest gratification. Her tour to North Wales was marked by a circumstance which was not less flattering to her pride than the source of much subsequent pleasure, viz. a friendly intercourse with Lady Eleanor Butler and Miss Ponsonby, the celebrated recluses (as they are called) of Langollen Vale. After her first visit, she thus writes, full of the subject, to the Rev. H. White, Lichfield, in a letter dated Barmouth, September 7, 1795:

'I resume my pen, to speak to you of that enchanting unique, in conduct and situation, of which you have heard so much, though, as yet, without distinct description. You will guess that I mean the celebrated ladies of Langollen Vale, their mansion, and their bowers.

'By their own invitation, I drank tea with them thrice during the nine days of my visit to Dinbren; and, by their kind introduction, I partook of a rural dinner, given by their friend, Mrs. Ormsby, amid the ruins of Valle-Crucis, an ancient abbey distant a mile and a half from their villa. Our party was large enough to fill three chaises and two phaetons.

'We find the scenery of Valle-Crucis grand, silent, impressive, awful. The deep repose, resulting from the high umbrageous mountains which rise immediately around these ruins, solemnly harmonizes with their ivied arches and broken columns. Our drive to it from the lovely villa leads through one of the most picturesque parts of the peerless vale, and along the banks of the classic river.

'After dinner, our whole party returned to drink tea and coffee in that retreat, which breathes all the witchery of genius, taste, and sentiment. You remember Mr. Hayley's poetic compliment to the sweet miniature painter, Miers:

> "His magic pencil, in its narrow space,
> Pours the full portion of uninjur'd grace."

So may it be said of the talents and exertion which converted a cottage, in two acres and a half of turnip ground, to a fairy-palace, amid the bowers of Calypso.

'It consists of four small apartments; the exquisite cleanliness of the kitchen, its utensils, and its auxiliary offices, vieing with the finished elegance of the gay, the lightsome little dining-room, as that contrasts the gloomy, yet superior grace of the library, into which it opens.

'This room is fitted up in the Gothic style, the door and large sash windows of that form, and the latter of painted glass, "shedding the dim religious light." Candles are seldom admitted into this apartment.—The ingenious friends have invented a kind of prismatic lantern, which occupies the whole elliptic arch of the Gothic door. This lantern is of cut glass, variously coloured, enclosing two lamps with their reflectors. The light it imparts resembles that of a volcano, sanguine and solemn. It is assisted by two glow-worm lamps, that, in little marble reservoirs, stand on the opposite chimney-piece, and these supply the place of the here always chastized day-light, when the dusk of evening sables, or when night wholly involves the thrice-lovely solitude.

'A large Eolian harp is fixed in one of the windows, and, when the weather permits them to be opened, it breathes its deep tones to the gale, swelling and softening as that rises and falls.

> "Ah me! what hand can touch the strings so fine,
> Who up the lofty diapason roll
> Such sweet, such sad, such solemn airs divine,
> And let them down again into the soul!"

This saloon of the Minervas contains the finest editions, superbly bound, of the best authors, in prose and verse, which the English, Italian, and French languages boast, contained in neat wire cases: over them the portraits, in miniature, and some in larger ovals, of the favoured friends of these celebrated votaries to that sentiment which exalted the characters of Theseus and Perithous, of David and Jonathan.

'Between the picture of Lady Bradford and the chimney-piece hangs a beautiful entablature, presented to the ladies of Langollen Vale by Madam Sillery, late Madam Genlis. It has convex miniatures of herself and of her pupil, Pamela; between them, pyramidally placed, a garland of flowers, copied from a nosegay, gathered by Lady Eleanor in her bowers, and presented to Madam Sillery.

‘The kitchen-garden is neatness itself. Neither there, nor in the whole precincts, can a single weed be discovered. The fruit-trees are of the rarest and finest sort, and luxuriant in their produce; the garden-house, and its implements, arranged in the exactest order.

‘Nor is the dairy-house, for one cow, the least curiously elegant object of this magic domain. A short steep declivity, shadowed over with tall shrubs, conducts us to the cool and clean repository. The white and shining utensils that contain the milk, and cream, and butter, are pure “as snows thrice bolted in the northern blast.” In the midst, a little machine, answering the purpose of a churn, enables the ladies to manufacture half a pound of butter for their own breakfast, with an apparatus which finishes the whole process without manual operation.

‘The wavy and shaded gravel-walk which encircles this Elysium, is enriched with curious shrubs and flowers. It is nothing in extent, and every thing in grace and beauty, and in variety of foliage; its gravel smooth as marble. In one part of it we turn upon a small knoll, which overhangs a deep hollow glen. In its tangled bottom a frothing brook leaps and clamours over the rough stones in its channel. A large spreading beech canopies the knoll, and a semilunar seat, beneath its boughs, admits four people. A board, nailed to the elm, has this inscription,

“O cara Selva! e Fiumicello amato!”

‘It has a fine effect to enter the little Gothic library, as I first entered it, at the dusk hour. The prismatic lantern diffused a light gloomily glaring. It was assisted by the paler flames of the petit lamps on the chimney-piece, while, through the opened windows, we had a darkling view of the lawn on which they look, the concave shrubbery of tall cypress, yews, laurels, and lilachs; of the woody amphitheatre on the opposite hill, that seems to rise immediately behind the shrubbery; and of the grey barren mountain which, then just visible, forms the back ground. The evening-star had risen above the mountain; the airy harp loudly rung to the breeze, and completed the magic of the scene.

‘You will expect that I say something of the enchantresses themselves, beneath whose plastic wand these peculiar graces arose. Lady Eleanor is of middle height, and somewhat beyond the *embonpoint* as to plumpness; her face round and fair, with the glow of luxuriant health. She has not fine features, but they are agreeable;—enthusiasm in her eye, hilarity and benevolence in her smile. Exhaustless is her fund of historic and traditionary knowledge, and of every thing passing in the present eventful period. She has uncommon strength and fidelity of memory; and her taste for works of imagination, particularly for poetry, is very awakened, and she expresses all she feels with an ingenuous ardour, at which the cold-spirited beings stare. I am informed that both these ladies read and speak most of the modern languages. Of the Italian poets, especially of Dante, they are warm admirers.

' Miss Ponsonby, somewhat taller than her friend, is neither slender nor otherwise, but very graceful. Easy, elegant, yet pensive, is her address and manner :

> " Her voice, like lovers watch'd, is kind and low."

A face rather long than round, a complexion clear, but without bloom, with a countenance which, from its soft melancholy, has peculiar interest. If her features are not beautiful, they are very sweet and feminine. Though the pensive spirit within permits not her lovely dimples to give mirth to her smile, they increase its sweetness, and consequently, her power of engaging the affections. We see, through their veil of shading reserve, that all the talents and accomplishments which enrich the mind of Lady Eleanor, exist with equal powers, in this her charming friend.

' Such are these extraordinary women, who, in the bosom of their deep retirement, are sought by the first characters of the age, both as to rank and talents. To preserve that retirement from too frequent invasion, they are obliged to be somewhat coy as to accessibility.

' When we consider their intellectual resources, their energy and industry, we are not surprised to hear them asserting, that, though they have not once forsaken their vale, for thirty hours successively, since they entered it seventeen years ago ; yet neither the long summer's day, nor winter's night, nor weeks of imprisoning snows, ever inspired one weary sensation, one wish of returning to that world, first abandoned in the bloom of youth, and which they are yet so perfectly qualified to adorn.'

Many letters to these ladies occur in the work, and the correspondence appears to have been acceptable to both parties. English literature is the subject on which Miss Seward delights to dwell, and her remarks on books are extremely amusing. Without reserve, she offers her opinion of the productions of an author when writing to that author. For example, her remarks on Mr. Hayley's Life of Cowper are delivered to Mr. Hayley without the least hesitation, in letter 12, vol. vi. and they prove the truth of what this lady says of herself : ' I am an ingenuous creature, and speak as I feel :' but if Mr. Hayley could pardon her plain speaking on the score of his life of Cowper[*], he must be

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[*] ' Of this, as of the former collection of his letters, I can say with truth, that I think every well-educated person, of talents not above the common level, every day produces letters as well worth attention as most of Cowper's, especially as to diction.

' My dear bard, you become a perfect Sangrado in literature, when you challenge pre-eminence for such insipid epistles. Water is a pure fluid, but it has not the strength of port-wine (Johnson's letters) nor the spirit and fine flavour of champaign (Gray's). Good water be mortified at the manner in which Miss S. expresses herself, in a letter to Mr. Walter Scott, on the asserted decline of her friend Mr. Hayley's poetic genius. She was now courting the friendship of Mr. Scott; and her 'dear bard,' as she calls Mr. Hayley, seems to have been sacrificed to this new literary attachment: though she indeed complains of his epistolary neglect of her.

In our former article on this work, we referred to Miss Seward's frequent anathemas against Reviews because, evidently, they had not been favourable to some of her poetical works, and to those of authors whom she admired. We alluded, also, to her fancied but curiously mistaken knowlege of writers in the M. R., and the particular instance of it occurs again with ludicrous gravity in Vol. iv. p. 144. and p. 189.—Were Miss S. living, she would be a little ashamed to be told of her gross error, and to hear that the criticisms which she censures were in fact the productions of eminent men whom she elsewhere names and highly praises, without suspecting their critical *sins*. It is curious also to see her in correspondence with, and flattering, others who were then or have since been known as deeply implicated in her supposed plots and crimes of public criticism. One statement which she makes, with regard to Reviews, needs only to be read to excite laughter at its absurdity:

> 'When I was at Bristol last summer, a lady said to me, "My son is of Merchant Taylor's school. He has there a friend and schoolfellow, *not yet sixteen*, who has been employed by one of the Review-editors to write strictures for his work, on your Memoirs of Dr. Darwin." Such are often the presumptuous deciders on new publications.'

If authors may sometimes complain of severe treatment from Reviewers, we are sure that Reviewers may often complain of unjust conduct from disappointed, interested, ignorant, or *story-telling* individuals.

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water is to be had almost everywhere, and good epistolary water without its having cost the gold of genius to procure it.

'Why you should labour to persuade the world that the rectitude, talents, and judgment of that man were all surpassing, is to me incomprehensible, since in so doing you betray your own fair claims to poetic fame. This conclusion inevitably follows your premises. If Cowper was indeed free from all unworthy jealousy of rival reputation, and fully able to appreciate the value of poetic compositions, then his total silence respecting his friend Hayley's muse, proves that he did not think her worth attention, however he might love her votary. I, the rebel to Mr. Hayley's Cowperian edicts, but the sincere admirer of much of his poetry, will never subscribe to his illimitable claims for the bard of Weston: but O! I grieve to see him dwindling himself into a dwarf bearing Cowper's armour, and looking up and wondering at the Colossus his stilts had made.'

Our readers will recollect that, during the American war, Miss Seward wrote a monody on the unfortunate Major André, in which she reflected on the conduct of General Washington; and it was reported that the General had written to Miss S. to exonerate himself from the insinuation contained in the monody. Though this was not exactly the fact, something like it occured; and in one of these letters the circumstances are clearly stated. To Miss Ponsonby, (August 9, 1798,) she says:

'No, dear Madam, I was not, as you suppose, favoured with a letter from General Washington, expressly addressed to myself: but, a few years after peace was signed between this country and America, an officer introduced himself, commissioned from General Washington to call upon me, and to assure me, from the General himself, that no circumstance of his life had been so mortifying as to be censured in the Monody on André, as the pitiless author of his ignominious fate: that he had laboured to save him—that he requested my attention to papers on the subject, which he had sent by this officer for my perusal.

'On examining them, I found they entirely acquitted the General. They filled me with contrition for the rash injustice of my censure. With a copy of the proceedings of the court-martial that determined André's condemnation, there was a copy of a letter from General Washington to General Clinton, offering to give up André in exchange for Arnold, who had fled to the British camp, observing the reason there was to believe that the apostate General had exposed that gallant English officer to unnecessary danger to facilitate his own escape: copy of another letter from General Washington to Major André, adjuring him to state to the commander in chief his unavoidable conviction of the selfish perfidy of Arnold, in suggesting that plan of disguise, which exposed André, if taken, to certain condemnation as a spy, when, if he had come openly in his regimentals, and under a flag of truce, to the then unsuspected American General, he would have been perfectly safe: copy of André's high-souled answer, thanking General W. for the interest he took in his destiny; but, observing that, even under conviction of General Arnold's inattention to his safety, he could not suggest to General Clinton any thing which might influence him to save his less important life by such an exchange.

'These, Madam, are the circumstances, as faithfully as I can recal them, at such a distance of time, of the interview with General Washington's friend, which I slightly mentioned to yourself and Lady Eleanor, when I had the happiness of being with you last summer.'

In this anecdote, the lady and the General both appear to advantage.

On the death of Mr. Saville, (Vicar-choral of Lichfield Cathedral,) Miss S. employs the language of the most heart-felt grief. She speaks of his grave as the place 'where her soul's dearest comforts for ever lie;' (Vol. vi. p.122.) and she says, (p. 175.)

(p. 175.) 'my attachment to him has subjected me to unworthy reflections.' It is not for us to investigate the precise meaning of these strong expressions; the purport of which, however, is not new to us: but we do not perceive the necessity of giving to the public the letters which contain them.

The last of Miss S.'s correspondents was Mr. Walter Scott; and we shall finish our extracts with her interview with this gentleman. In a letter to the Rev. H. F. Carey, dated Lichfield, May 10, 1807, she thus writes:

'Not less astonishing than was Johnson's memory is that of Mr. Scott; like Johnson also, his recitation is too monotonous and violent to do justice, either to his own writings, or that of others. You are almost the only poet I know, whose reading is entirely just to his muse.

'Mr. White and Mr. Simpson breakfasted with us on Saturday morning. One hour only before that which he fixed for his departure, our northern luminary, by repeated and vehement solicitation, was persuaded to shine upon us till ten the next day. Mr. Simpson would have no nay to his request, that the party should dine and sup with him and Mrs. Simpson. The stranger guest, Scott, delighted us all by the unaffected charms of his mind and manners. He had diverged many miles from his intended track of return from our capital, to visit me ere he repassed the Tweed. Such visits are the most high-prized honours which my writings have procured for me.

'I shewed Mr. Scott the passage in your Dante which mentions his work, and the Magician it celebrates. He had heard of your translation, but not read it. On looking at a few of the passages, and comparing them with the original, he said there was power and skill in having breathed so much spirit into a translation so nearly literal; but he confessed his inability to find pleasure in that author, even in his own language, which Mr. S. perfectly understands. The plan, he said, appeared to him unhappy, as it was singular, and the personal malignity and strange mode of revenge, presumptuous and uninteresting. However, he promised to examine your English version more largely when he could find leisure.

'Constable, Scott's Edinburgh publisher, dined with me a fortnight ago, and said he had agreed with Mr. Scott to give a thousand guineas for Flodden-Field, a poem now on the anvil. The muses drive a thriving trade for Scott, as once they did for Hayley, and since for Darwin; but, alas! look at their bankrupts, from Spenser's day down to Chatterton, and in the present period. Mr. Scott told me Gray and Mason* have been heard to declare the pecuniary barrenness

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'* On mentioning this circumstance to Mr. Scott he expressed his opinion that Miss Seward must have misunderstood him. Gray left his literary property to Mason, as is well known. It is not equally well-known that Mason considered the profits (and Mr. Scott always understood that they were considerable) as a fund for the exercise of the noblest charity, in educating young men of talents, many of whom rose to considerable distinction.—*Note by the Editor.*'

renness of their deathless laurels. The honours of future times, inevitable indeed, but promissory only, are the sole rewards of Southey's energies, though awakened by all the nine.'

The last letter is dated Nov. 5, 1807. For some time before the conclusion of this correspondence, Miss Seward complains of her declining health, and particularly of a giddiness which rendered both reading and writing very irksome; yet even in those letters which announce the increase of her malady, we perceive no diminution of genius and energy, but her mind appears vivid to the last. Though we have made such numerous quotations, we seem to have transcribed too little to afford the reader an adequate conception of the nature of this collection: but we must plead our old excuse for not being more prolix. It would afford us pleasure to insert several of the writer's judicious remarks, which, if selected, may be exhibited as her thoughts or maxims, or as "*the Beauties of Seward*:" but this is a gratification in which we must not indulge.—Before, however, we close these volumes, and direct our attention to other matters, we must remark that Miss Seward, adopting the rules given by Dr. Johnson in No. 152 of the *Rambler*, cautiously abstains from that careless and conversational style which some persons have recommended as the most proper for the letter-writer. She uniformly aims at being rather nervous than easy; and though, in her solicitude to appear as a woman elevated far above the vulgar throng, she at times trenches on affectation, assumes the appropriate terms of science, and selects the *sesquipedalia verba* in preference to ordinary phraseology, yet she discovers such an extent of reading, and so matured an understanding, that momentary disgust evaporates before the radiance which she displays. If she arrogates superiority, who will dare to dispute her pretensions? If she be vain, is it not the vanity of a highly cultivated mind?

The poetical works of Miss Seward have been lately edited by Mr. Walter Scott, with memoirs of her life; and we propose shortly to make some report of this publication.

ART. II. *Supplement to Testacea Britannica*, with additional Plates, by George Montagu, F. L. S. & M. W. S. 4to. pp. 190. 1l. 16s. with coloured, 18s. with plain Plates. White and Cochrane.

THE numerous additions and corrections exhibited in this supplementary volume attest, at once, the unwearied industry and the eminent candour which characterize the researches of its author. Of nearly ninety distinct species, illustrated in the additional plates, many are of very rare occurrence; and others, though common, are figured for the purpose of discriminating them from those with which they have been generally confounded: but not fewer than seventy have been added to the catalogue of British shells.

Mr. Montagu gratefully acknowleges that, in the course of his investigations, he has derived material assistance from the late Mr. Boys's cabinet of the more rare minute shells; which has enabled him to ascertain some new species of Nautili, to correct some mistakes, to complete imperfect definitions, and to fix some of the doubtful names imposed by Solander, in the Portland Museum. 'Of the accuracy of these names (he says) we find a full confirmation by a lot of land and fresh-water shells, which were bought at the sale of that Museum, now in the possession of Mr. Laskey, with their original titles affixed; and who obligingly indulged us with them for comparison.' The author bestows a just tribute of praise, also, on the able exertions of Dr. Maton, and the Rev. Thomas Rackett; whose Descriptive Catalogue of British Testacea, published in the eighth volume of the Linnéan Transactions, anticipated some of his figures, and superseded the necessity of delineating others which were originally intended to have accompanied the present Supplement. While Mr. M. cites the elaborate writings of these gentlemen in terms of respect and approbation, he very properly enters his protest against their doctrine of the perfection and infallibility of the Linnéan system:

> 'Such an opinion (he remarks) militates against all improvement. Daily experience teaches us, that as our knowledge expands, and new objects present themselves to our view, or, becoming more intimately acquainted with others, heretofore only partially and obscurely known, some alterations and additions are indispensibly necessary; and in this opinion most modern physiological writers seem to concur. At the same time we by no means approve of a complete revolution in a system which is at once simple, perspicuous, and comprehensive; but these are matters of private opinion, not of controversy.
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> 'The writings of Linnæus shew how frequently he was induced to vary his opinion, and those new emanations of light from so brilliant a mind illumed by its radiance the scientific world. Can it then be supposed that, had this great physiologist lived a few years longer, he would not have improved upon his twelfth edition of the *Systema Naturæ?* Since the publication of that valuable work, how much new matter has been discovered that cannot be referred to any of the Linnæan genera, the writings of many celebrated modern naturalists will evince: we must not therefore inculcate the principle that any deviations from the Linnæan arrangement are useless deviations in science.'

Among the recent additions, *Balanus spongiosus* is worthy of specific notice, on account of its extreme rarity, and of its occurring imbedded in a particular species of sponge, nearly allied to the *tubulosa.* In the reticulated fibres of this substance, the *Balanus*, during its infant state, finds a secure lodgment, and is soon inclosed by the growing fabric of the sponge animal; with the exception of a small opening, which is kept clear by the vortex, occasioned by the constant motion of the tentacula of the triton inhabiting the shell. 'For this discovery the conchologist is indebted to the late Mr. Bryer, of Weymouth, who found several of these non-descript shells on Portland Reach, some of which were recent, containing the animals. This gentleman remarked, when he favoured us with specimens, that, although he had often found the same sponge in the bay of Weymouth, he never before observed it to be inhabited by this shell; whence he concluded it to be a *pelagic* production; probably it is a very rare species, for it never occurred to us on the coast of Devon, where the sponge is by no means uncommon.'

The inquisitive reader will be particularly gratified with the article *Teredo navalis*, not only because the animal and its shell are more accurately described than heretofore, but because some ingenious conjecture occurs with regard to the perforating faculties of this species, and of the *Pholades*. It results from Mr. Montagu's observations that the *Teredo*, as Prof. Fabricius had suggested in his Travels in Norway, should be included in the multivalve division; and that its animal is an *Ascidia* and not a *Terebella*, being perfectly smooth throughout, destitute of feelers or appendages of any description, hyaline, and provided with two tubes or syphons, at the smaller end, and placed between two testaceous valves. It likewise appears that the destruction occasioned by the Teredo, and other borers, is not for the purpose of food, but for a safe dwelling-place; and that the dissolution of wood or stone, in which we find them included, may be effected by a menstruum analogous to the gastric juice. To state the details, on which these conclusions are founded, would occupy a larger portion of space than we can afford to the history of a single shell. The *ways and means* of its inhabitant, however, deserve to be carefully studied, especially in a maritime country; and they ought forcibly to invite the attention of all gentlemen of the nautical profession, in order that some mode may, if possible, be devised for removing or diminishing the depredations of an apparently insignificant animal. Timber smeared with a mixture of tar, sulphur, and pounded glass, is said to resist their ravages: but has the experiment been fairly tried? — With this part of the work, the reader will connect the short notice on *Mya Pholadia*, (p. 20.) which makes its way not only into lime-stone, but into fluor-spar and granite. 'How the siliceous part of this last is destroyed, we do not pretend to determine. Can the animal discharge the siliceous grains whole through its tubes, when the calcareous, micaceous, or other soluble connecting parts are softened; or does it prepare a menstruum similar to fluor acid, and thus effect the destruction of the whole?'

After mature deliberation on the structure of hinges, and some recent discoveries, the author has judged it proper to adopt the genus *Ligula*; comprehending those shells which were formerly divided among the *Myæ* and *Mactræ*, without strictly belonging to either of the families, and of which Dr. Solander intended, had he lived, to have formed a new genus. The characters, as now instituted, are, 'Animal an Ascidia, shell bivalve, equivalve, hinge with a broad tooth in each valve, projecting inwards, furnished with a pit or cavity for the reception of the connecting cartilage; in some species, a minute erect tooth.'—*Mya prætenuis*, *pubescens*, and *distorta*, and *Mactra compressa* and *Boysii*, of the *Testacea Britannica*, belong, therefore, to *Ligula*; to which, also, is now annexed the new and interesting species denominated *Prismatica*, from the circumstance of its reflecting, in some particular lights, strong prismatic hues.

From a careful inspection of the several species of *Cardium*, in their different stages of growth, the author is much inclined to believe that *ciliare* is only the young of *aculeatum*, and that *spinosum* is merely the same in an intermediate state of growth. Solander's *spatula*, it is also highly probable, is nothing else than a variety of *echinatum*, with the spines somewhat longer, and more distant than usual.

These and numerous corrections and changes, which are proposed in the course of the work, while they sufficiently bespeak Mr. Montagu's anxiety to exhibit a genuine and accurate nomenclature, at the same time reveal the inconstancy of many of the marks which have been adopted as the grounds of permanent distinctions in conchology. Hence it becomes extremely desirable to lay hold of general and fixed rules, whenever they can be obtained. On this principle, *Venus Dammonia* is successfully distinguished from *V. Scotica*.

'In many respects it is so nearly allied to *Venus Scotica*, that at first sight one might be naturally led to consider it the same, but upon critical examination by comparison, the distinction is evident, as well in its contour as in the structure of the hinge, and still more obvious by the *crenulæ* on the margin; a circumstance alone sufficient for specific distinction were all others wanting: a character invariable, and by far more fixed and determinate than any to be found in our fresh water *Myæ* and *Mytili*, which are mostly destitute of any permanent specific distinction, and of course are multiplied and reduced at the caprice of the conchologist; a circumstance we are all liable to when obviously fixed characters are wanting, and where gradation so strongly tends to unite them. In the present subject, however habit might accord in other respects with *V. Scotica*, the construction of the margin must be considered as inviolable; no common shell, whose character is to possess a plain margin, is ever found with a crenulated one, nor *vice versa*. This obvious mark of distinction is equally as essential in discriminating between *Venus sulcata* and *compressa*.'

A similar degree of acuteness is manifested in proving the specific identity of *Arca pilosa* and *A. glycymeris*, which formerly figured as distinct, but which may now be regarded as trifling varieties of the same species.

Although discussions of this complexion may, by some persons, be deemed minute or superfluous, their importance in a geological point of view alone is far from inconsiderable; and the recognition of living prototypes of fossil remains forms an interesting bond of connection between the animal and the vegetable departments of natural science. The more closely the different species of shells are examined, and the more accurately their respective differences are registered and delineated, the more will the geologist be enabled to pronounce on the kinds which seem to have disappeared from the regions of life, and on those which are still found to contain their appropriate inhabitants. It is not often that Mr. Montagu directly adverts to this aspect of his subject: but the ensuing remarks on *Nautilus Beccarii* may convince us that he has not allowed it wholly to escape his notice:

'This and the *Beccarii perversus*, are not uncommon in a fossil state; Mr. Mead favoured us with specimens which he collected from the Appenines, near Sienna, in Italy. These are crowded in a yellowish earthy matrix, mixed with *Nautilus crispus*, and another very minute non-descript species rarely, and less frequently *Serpula lobata*.

'Both the *Beccarii* are about double the size of the recent shells found on our shores, the effect of a warmer climate. Plancus noted these among other minute species in the sands on the shore of Areminum, now Rimini, in the Adriatic.

'The opening or entrance of the syphon in the shells, is situated at the interior side close to the second whirl, and is continued throughout all the numerous *septa* without a break. An examination of the structure is more easily and accurately obtained by these antediluvian relicts than by recent shells, as they bear grinding much better.'

Nautilus calcar, of the present author, which in the *Testacea Britannica* was incorrectly substituted for *subarcuatulus*, was also discovered by Mr. Mead, in a fossil state, near Sienna.

The specimens scarcely exceed a quarter of an inch in length, and are somewhat less in breadth, extremely compressed, and furnished with from twelve to fifteen concamerations.

With respect to the occurrence of the genuine *Cypræa-pediculus* on the north shores of the Frith of Forth, we perceive that we are in some measure at issue with Mr. Montagu. His sole aim, we are confident, can only be to ascertain the fact; and the same sort of evidence which has removed our doubts on the subject would probably have satisfied him, had it fallen more directly within his reach. The *sulcated* specimens, gathered on that part of the coast some years ago, were so few in number that the perspicacity even of Captain Laskey and Mr. H. Boys might fail to encounter another. From the same quarter of our island, however, we have seen one or two with partial depressions on the back, particularly towards each end of the shell, and another with a faint dorsal channel; and we cannot easily dismiss the suspicion that the furrow in question only indicates an accidental variety, being more or less complete, or wholly wanting in different individuals.

Since the publication of *Testacea Britannica*, Mr. Montagu has directed his attention to the purple dye which is obtained from the inhabitants of *Buccinum lapillus* and *Turbo clathrus*. The former, according to Reaumur, yielded the famous Tyrian purple, which in the days of Pliny sold for nearly thirty guineas per pound. Duhamel, however, supposes that the animal from which it was procured belonged to a species of *Murex*. The part which contains the colouring matter in *Buccinum capillus* is a slender longitudinal vein, just under the skin, behind the head, and appearing whiter than the rest of the animal. By breaking the shell in a small vice, so as not to crush the animal, and laying open the vein with a needle, a tenacious matter, of the colour and consistency of thick cream, becomes manifest. This may be taken out by a fine-pointed and stiff hair-pencil, for marking linen, silk, or paper. On exposing the fluid to the air, it assumes a brighter yellow, and speedily turns to a pale green on the several materials. It then imperceptibly changes to a darker hue, passes to bluish, and from that to purplish-red, of greater or less intensity, according to the quantity used in the experiment. These changes, too, are more or less accelerated by the presence or the absence of the solar rays: but, even without the influence of the latter, they are all effected in the course of two or three hours. It would appear from the following statements that this dye, when once fixed, cannot be effaced, and might therefore be very advantageously employed in all cases in which large quantities of it are not required:

'Several

‘Several marks were made on fine calico, in order to try if it was possible to discharge the colour by such chemical means as were at hand; and it was found that after the colour was fixed at its last natural change, *nitrous*, no more than *vitriolic acid*, had any other effect than that of rather brightening it: *aqua regia* with and without solution of tin, and *marine acid*, produced no change; nor had fixed or volatile *alkali* any sensible effect. It does not in the least give out its colour to alcohol like cochineal, and the *succus* of the animal of *Turbo clathrus*, but it communicates its very disagreeable odour to it most copiously, so that opening the bottle has been more powerful on the olfactory nerves, than the effluvia of assa fœtida, to which it may be compared. All the markings which had been alkalized, and acidulated, together with those to which nothing had been applied, became, after washing in soap and water, of an uniform colour, rather brighter than before, and were fixed at a fine unchangeable crimson.

‘As the stain given by this animal fluid is, as far as our experience has gone, indestructible, attempts were made to collect a quantity for the purpose of marking linen, when fresh shells could not be procured. Many shells were broken, all of which were more or less possessed of the colouring *succus*; this was, by means of a pair of fine pointed scissars, extracted with as little of the adjoining flesh as possible, and ground on a piece of plate glass, with a few drops of spring water. Thus prepared of a proper consistency, it was of a dull green colour, which it continued for a considerable time in bulk; but some which was spread thin changed to its ultimate colour in the course of the day, without the assistance of the sun, though we have found it continue many days in its premature green, if light has been excluded. Some of this matter, when thoroughly dry, taken up by a hair pencil, dipped in water, and applied to linen, was by the assistance of the solar rays speedily turned to dull purple, and afterwards by washing with soap, to a crimson, not much inferior in colour to the recent dye, but never so strong.

‘Whether the colouring matter of this species was ever used by the ancients, is to be doubted, since so small a quantity is produced by each animal.

‘We are informed that some Spanish philosopher discovered a shell on the coast of Guayaquil and Guatimala, in Peru, that produced a purple dye. All the description we have of this shell is, that it is the size of a walnut, and that the dye, similar to that of *Buccinum lapillus*, changes from white to green, and is not purple till dry; the method however of extracting it clearly proves it to be very distinct from that species. The operation is performed either by killing and pressing the animal, or by drawing it partly out of the shell and squeezing, it is made to yield the fluid which serves for dyeing; this is repeated four times at different intervals, but always with less success. If continued the animal dies. No colour at present known, says the Abbe Raynal, can be compared to this, either as to lustre, liveliness, or duration.’ [*]

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[*] ‘Encyclopædia Britannica, Article *Murex*.’

M. Stroem, a Norwegian clergyman, who studied with assiduity the natural productions of his country, published (if we rightly recollect) a dissertation on *Buccinum lapillus*; in which, among other interesting particulars, he endeavoured to prove that the fine purple dye was procured from the uterine humours of the animal inhabitant. That a liquid secretion, capable of communicating a purple tinge, may exist in the womb as well as in a particular vein of the same animal, implies no contradiction; and, if the *Hydratriticea* of Linné be, as is now generally alleged, the ovary of the creature in question, its contained juice, as we have known since the days of Reaumur, imparts a fine purple stain to linen.

The colouring matter obtained from the animal of *Turbo clathrus* may be perceived in the form of a beautiful purple liquor, which is discharged by allowing the animal to sicken in consequence of being kept for some days in sea-water. This circumstance, which is noted by Plancus and Martini, tends to confirm the conjecture that it may have contributed to the celebrated Tyrian murex.

' Indeed it appears much more probable that the colouring secretion of this animal should have attracted notice, and have been collected as a dye, than that of *Buccinum lapillus*, for the obvious reason that it not only produces the fluid spontaneously, and in much greater quantity, but that its primitive colour is of that richness so glowingly described.

' *Murex Brandaris*, called by Rondeletius *Murex purpura*, is generally believed to be one of the species that afforded that costly dye in the Mediterranean. This shell, which in English has been called the Thorny Snipe's Head, is figured in Chemnitz, vol. x. tab. 160.

' The vast heaps of shells mentioned by authors to be found about Tarentum, are supposed to be those from which this celebrated dye was extracted, and seem to indicate their place to be one of those where it was prepared; but of what species these really are, we do not find sufficiently ascertained.'

Having been thus liberal in *our extracts*, we must refer the curious reader to pages 122 and 123, for the experiments recorded with respect to the colouring properties of *Turbo clathrus*.

From Mr. Montagu's general observations on *Serpula* and *Vermiculum*, it is abundantly obvious that the extrication of these two genera is still very far from complete; and that marked differences may be observed among their animal inhabitants, which are not indicated by any of the external characters of the testaceous coverings. On our own shores alone, for example, seven distinct animals occupy shells of *Serpula* so exactly similar as not to be discriminated by the eye, and are sometimes all grouped in one contorted mass. The

key and Mr. Henry Boys: but a more ample enu-
, by the former gentleman, will be found in the first
of the Memoirs of the Wernerian Society, which we
orted in our Number for September last.

we lend our most cordial testimony to Mr. Montagu's
knowlege of his subject, and to the persevering
with which he has prosecuted his inquiries, we now
espair of the pleasure of being permitted to compli-
n on the precision or correctness of his composition.
f his descriptions labour under a certain degree of
ness, from an injudicious accumulation of words;
very first sentence of his introduction is as clumsy as
grammatical. 'By the persuasions of our scientific
give delineations of many of the shells described in
Britannica, which at the time were omitted from the
e of the undertaking at a distance from the arts, we
n induced at our leisure to select such of them whose
nay serve to elucidate, and have had them engraved,
with several new and interesting species, for the use
ublic.'—The following sentence is rendered nearly
gible by the parsimonious use of the preposition *with.*
re crowded in a yellowish earthy matrix, mixed with
crispus, and another very minute non-descript species
nd less frequently *Serpula lobata.*'—In the first of the
quotations, *that* is oddly omitted, and, in the second,
inserted. 'It is a duty the public has a right to
om every writer, more especially in the cultivation of
hat professes to discourse upon particular subjects, he
ffer his own opinion.'—'It has three series of tu-
f equal size on each volution, whereas *M. adversus*
has the middle series much smaller, but *that* these
&c.—A violation of the concord of noun and verb
quently occurs; as, *striæ distinguishes, striæ is, a*
vere, &c. *Iliant* may sound more learned, but cer-
not more expressive than *gaping;* and *veneris,* applied
ly of shells, will probably extort a smile from the sur-
the apothecary. In extenuation of such verbal delin-
, it may, perhaps, be urged that habits of correct and

Art. III. *The Plants*, a Poem, Cantos the Third and Fourth, with Notes and Observations. By William Tighe, Esq. 8vo. pp. 240. 10s. 6d. Boards. Payne. 1811.

Our report of the first part of this publication will be found in the 58th vol. of our New Series, (p. 20.) In pursuance of his design, the author now celebrates the *Vine*, and the *Palm*, rather with reference to our historical associations, and our feelings of friendship and religion, than with any view of recording the habits and physiology of the individual plants. A stranger to the limited scope of the poem might well be startled at the extensive range of its title, which is commensurate with that of the vegetable kingdom: but he who candidly examines the performance, on its reduced and appropriate scale, will readily admit its claims to our favourable regard. If Mr. Tighe does not often soar to the heights of the sublime, nor dazzle us with corruscations of wit or beauty, he as seldom descends to the level of prose, or has recourse to low conceits, unmeaning epithets, or tawdry ornaments. His language and images are rarely at variance with the genuine spirit of poetry, his versification is generally harmonious, and his sentiments are correct, manly, and honourable.

The opening of the third canto, which derives much of its impressive effect from the beauties of contrast, will in no respect detract from our tempered suffrage of commendation:

‘ Beneath her shadowing vine may Friendship rest
Indulgent, while I wander o'er the chords
Once more, though Love may fail, and Peace neglect
To swell the welcome melody, and thrill
With happier notes the sympathetic lyre.

‘ Fain would I turn from Desolation's track,
And teach new flowers to bloom, where War hath late
Printed his iron footsteps: but around
Still darker fates urge on the rapid storm;
Insulted Freedom checks her dying groans,
Her casque, her ægis trampled in the dust;
E'en Hope amid the unceasing horror scarce
Rekindles one sad smile, or fondly dreams
Of fairer views, and brighter skies to come.

‘ Fly, Muse, with me from these ungenial shores;
Leave these devoted plains to hearts untouched
By thy creative power: let us awake
A more enlivening strain: seek, Muse, with me
Thy birth-place; and o'er India and the realms
With native vines empurpled bend thy flight
Exulting: for with thee hath Bacchus oft
Poured his unfettered lay; with thee hath led

The Lydian dance upon Ismenus' bank,
Or at the fount Dircean joined the choir
Of virgins in the dirge of Semelè.'

We may perhaps accuse the author of some incongruity in blending the mythology of Greece with the history of Noah and the patriarchs. At all events, the praises of the *first Bacchus* were intitled to precedence of commemoration: but Mr. Tighe evinces both taste and judgment in the apparent ease with which he glides from one part of his theme to another; and in the pleasing manner in which he interweaves the mention of rural labours, collateral allusions, and the episode of Agnes and Albert, with the influence of and associations connected with the Vine, in the different periods of the human story. The pure and generous strain of his reflections is eminently characterized in the following lines:

'Yes, let us leave the heroic field to such
As with unblushing front ascend the court
Of tyrants, and adore the bloody flag
Of conquest waved o'er war's relentless band.
No bays divine, but lurid sprigs impure
Of aconite, shall mark the apostate bard
Who gilds a nation's or a statesman's crime,
Who courts with shameless hymn meridian power,
Or with enervate ditties warms the pulse
Of flagging vice, and veils the sin he panders,
Foul else and odious in the light of truth.
But Truth and Virtue are the Muse's mates,
And Freedom guiltless of licentious song.
Such thine, ingenuous bard, who traced the powers
Which rule IMAGINATION's fairy dream;
And thine, for whom each SEASON wove a crown
Which no successive years shall ever fade.'

The desolation of Funchal by a water-spout, which broke on it during the night, the former happiness of the alpine peasantry, and the French invasion of Swisserland, are scenes finely pictured; and we would not willingly suppress the ensuing apostrophe, which breathes the language of unfeigned affection:

'Where are ye now, companions of my youth,
With whom full oft around the social board
I sat, and listened to the playful thought,
The unrestrained effusion of the soul
Not tainted yet by falsehood and the world?
But above all remembrance turns to thee,
O Frederick, in whose congenial breast,
My willing soul reposed an early store
Of rare affection; nor can time erase
The cherished memory!—and to thee the Muse
Would dedicate this wandering song; and wake

The ear of friendship with the strains of joy;
And call thee to the climes, where once we past,
In days less melancholy, Rhone's high banks,
Or shaded Arno's more alluring vale.'

In the fourth canto, the author transports us to the Persian gulph, Arabia, the burning desarts, India, Palmyra, Egypt, Palestine, the banks of the Tigris, and the groves in the neighbourhood of Mount Atlas; recalling the appropriate scenery of those regions of the world, and the manners and sentiments of the inhabitants, especially as they are affected by the various species of palms. His portrait of Africa naturally suggests the forlorn condition of the weary wanderer over trackless sands, the too probable fate of Mungo Park, the abolition of the slave-trade, and the loss of that statesman whose memory can never perish but under the ruins of the British constitution:

'With tedious footsteps through the shifting sand,
From Gambia's verdant wilderness, from Fez
Or Tripoli, some luckless traveller
May range to farthest Adel, and the shores
Of rich Melinda; him no tent at eve,
No friendly craal with salutation due
Receives; no unsuspicious charity
With social comfort counsels to repose:
Save where some generous female, as she plies

To scatter blessings o'er your harrassed shores.
Bind your crisp tresses with the white-flowered wreath,
Resume your song, resume your simple pipe,
Your many-waving attitudes of dance;
Whate'er there is on earth of joy be yours.

'Yet for one moment, o'er his fancied tomb,
Weep for the generous Statesman, who at once
Unbound your chains: who, when the piteous slave
From year to year had knelt at Britain's feet,
Ne'er mocked the wretch's hope, and made his power
All impotent for good. Oh! grace his urn
With tears; shed, shed your lilies o'er his grave,
Ye nymphs of Afric, with your sisters fair
Of Europe!—Ere a few short months were past,
For our offence, the star of hope was set!
Else might our wounds have closed, and that repose
He gave to Afric have embraced the world.

'And can the weakest of the Muse's train
Aspire to be the minstrel of our loss!
The Muse may wish, and in her wish delight,
To crown his tomb with every beauteous wreath
Which freedom, fame, benevolence or worth,
Social or civic, ever twined for man!
But little is the meed her hand can strew,
One passing flower, still trembling in her tears,
One transient offering, while she views the grave
Of him beloved though on the seat of power;
True son of Britain, by the world revered,
Whose value Europe saw, and Afric felt.'

The pathetic interest of this part of the poem is, moreover, heightened by the digressive stories of Zamora and Muzabba, and of Otao and Ulama: but we cannot make room for the insertion of them.

Could the admirers and abettors of commercial interdicts be swayed by reason, humanity, or verse, we should earnestly press on their meditations the sentiments and aspirations of this enlightened poet:

'Such commerce Nature destined for the sons
Of men: and Ocean in one vast embrace
Circled the kindred nations of the earth,
That social man should interchange and feel
The native blessings of his varied lot:
For this arose the oak, for this the pine
On Norway's beetling cliff.—Oh! banish War,
Who grinds his axe and fells the long-loved shade,
The shepherd's scene, the villager's delight,
To rib the floating fortress and sustain
The batteries of death! The cottage loom,

Perverted too, with rural canvas wings
The corsair's mast; and, from his tranquil field,
The peasant innocently pulls the stem,
Which rears o'er hostile fleets their labouring shrouds!
'Oh! banish war! set navigation free,
Free as the gale that wafts her! — He who cast
His shackles o'er the sea, returned alone
Despised and fugitive. — When shall the sons
Of Adam cease to ply their anxious thoughts
To heap a world with misery? — when shall man
Confess that in the bliss he can bestow
Lives the true secret of his own content! —
The selfish will is that corroding worm
Nurst in the heart, which, here uncrushed by Love,
Shall on its victim prey in worlds of fire.'

Mr. Tighe concludes this classical effusion in a strain of animated piety, predictive of the final accomplishment of the views of Providence, and of the happiness of the soul when restored to Paradise.

We purposely forbear from adverting to the notes and observations; which, though they occupy about one half of the volume, are intended either to explain and illustrate the text, but which present us with theological views that might invite to tedious and unprofitable discussions.

Art. IV. *Observations on Mineralogical Systems.* By Richard Chenevix, Esq. F.R.S. &c. Translated from the French, by a Member of the Geological Society. To which are now added, Remarks by Mr. Chenevix on the Reply of M. D'Aubuisson to the above Observations. 8vo. pp. 142. 5s. Boards. Johnson and Co. 1811.

An advertisement by the translator informs us that these observations were originally published in the 65th volume of the *Annales de Chimie*, in 1808, and appeared about the same time in the form of a separate memoir, during the author's residence in Paris. While Mr. Chenevix declined compliance with the request of those friends who solicited an English edition, from his own pen, he 'offered whatever assistance he might have it in his power to give, should any one value them so highly as to undergo the labour of translation.' Such a person has been found; and he appears to have executed his task with precision and ability. When we add that the observations themselves bespeak much acute thinking, and much perspicuous and forcible reasoning, the candid inquirer after truth will admit the propriety of their being submitted, in a correct and suitable form, to the judgment of the British public;

notwithstanding a certain tone of undignified harshness, which occasionally mingles in the author's language of disapprobation.

From the title of this essay, the reader, who is unapprized of its nature and contents, would naturally expect to encounter a review of the different systems of mineralogy which have been proposed for adoption: but the writer's obvious design is to impugn that which has been framed by Werner, and to advocate the cause of crystallography as expounded by the Abbé Haüy. In justice to the learned and celebrated Professor of Freyberg, it behoves us to remark that he has neither published nor completed any sytematical arrangement of mineral substances, but that he merely sketched the principles of a plan which his pupils, with various success, have attempted to realize; and that the faults of the scholar may often not be attributable to the master. His scheme, as exemplified by some of the most zealous and distinguished of his followers, is certainly remote from perfection; and we have more than once adverted to the cumbersome and unphilosophical mode of its distributions. Yet various considerations should powerfully dissuade us from pressing on its weaker parts with all the weapons of criticism. One of its most formidable antagonists (for such we conceive the present writer to be) admits that, by the distinctions and classification of the external characters, 'a great advance has been made, which, if it has not led directly to the object in view, shews at least the difficulty of the task;' that during a residence of eighteen months at Freyberg, he 'had daily occasion to admire the precision and accuracy with which the learned Professor recognized minerals at first sight; that the system of external characters by Werner, in the form in which it is made known to us by the books that treat of it, is infinitely superior to any thing of the kind that ever appeared before it;' and that 'it must be of the greatest utility to the miner.' We might add that every individual, who has paid the slightest attention to the study of mineralogy, must be convinced of the great difficulty of discriminating the unorganized portions of matter by permanent specific characters. Some of the most profound naturalists, who have appeared in modern times, have even hinted their doubts of the real existence of *species* in the vegetable and animal kingdom; because the multiplied discoveries in these departments seem only to approximate former distinctions by intermediate shades, and to prove that marked lines of separation are unknown in nature. However this may be, it is at all events certain that mineral substances are much less susceptible of distinct definition than plants and animals; and that he who enables us to recognize them, by their external characters and aspects, performs a service of infinite convenience and benefit to mankind.

The tract before us suggests many material points of debate, each of which might furnish a text for a separate treatise: but we are necessarily restricted to a short comment on some of the titles of the reasoning.

Want of metaphysical acuteness, either in Werner himself, or in those who profess to explain his doctrines, has given rise to a very loose and ambiguous employment of the term *essentially*; a circumstance which has not escaped the penetration of Mr. Chenevix. 'I shall begin,' he says, 'by stating two objections to the word *essentially*. In the first place, it does not convey to every one the same idea; and we cannot have any precise notion as to its use on this occasion, unless we have been accustomed to apply some determinate signification to it. In the second place, we are wholly deprived of chemical means which might assist us in pronouncing with some degree of certainty between what forms an essential, and what forms an accidental part in the composition of a mineral.' This argument he prosecutes at considerable length, and with singular felicity; adverting, at the same time, to the impropriety of selecting the number three, or, indeed, any definite number of characters, as indicative of a change in chemical composition, or fixing the determination of species.

Mr. Chenevix expatiates, sometimes with cogency and always with plausibility, on the discrepancy of the Wernerian arrangements with the results of chemical experiments: but it is scarcely fair to try them by such a test, because they are deduced from *characteristic features* rather than from chemical composition. This principle has its advantages and disadvantages; and among the latter, one of the most glaring is that the station of a mineral in the Wernerian catalogue is not the index of its internal constitution.

The system of Haüy, again, which is here extolled (in our apprehension) above its real merits, professes to found its distinctions and divisions on the integrant molecule, combined with the chemical composition. The author of these observations states the ground of this principle of arrangement, and unfolds the principle itself in a very luminous and impressive manner: but the question still occurs, — will the student of crystalline forms, or of external characters, first and most readily be enabled to discriminate the fossil matters with which we are surrounded? The former is well aware that the detection of the integrant molecule is not very easily nor very speedily accomplished; and that a knowlege of the forms, deducible from the primitive or original crystal, presupposes a certain degree of familiarity with geometry. The chemical analysis, too, of the most common stone, is an operation of very considerable delicacy; requiring not only a suitable apparatus of instruments, tests, and reagents, but time, patience, and skilful manipulation. Few individuals, in short, can command leisure and fortune, or possess opportunity and ability, for subjecting every mineral specimen which presents itself to chemical trials, on the issue of which he can place any reliance. In many instances, indeed, the results of analyses, apparently conducted with the utmost accuracy, are deceptive or discordant, so that they cannot with propriety be adopted as the stable bases of permanent arrangements. In some cases, there is even reason to presume that new combinations are formed during the process. Objections might also be urged against the uniformly geometrical accuracy of the integrant molecules, or least conceivable particles of matter; for De la Métherie, and others, have proved that the forms attributed to the molecules are often hypothetical, the measure of angles by the gonyometer being, on some occasions, incident to an error of half a degree, or upwards; and different calculators report different measurements. Yet on the rigid exactness of the forms of the molecule depend all the laws of decrement which have been assigned to these forms. Besides, as many species do either not exist in a crystalized form, or have not hitherto been found in that state, they are in course excluded from the method, and thrown into a voluminous appendix. Granting, therefore, that this method is perfectly correct and purely scientific as far as it goes, it is still only a partial record of the kinds of substances which compose the mineral kingdom.

While Mr. Chenevix insists on the stability of M. Haüy's arrangements he admits that this celebrated mineralogist has adopted very material changes since its publication: but these changes, he informs us, were foreseen and predicted by the author. Whether Werner, also, foresaw and predicted the alterations to which he has at different times had recourse, we shall not pretend to determine: but we much mistake if many and important changes do not await both the systems in question: for the science of mineralogy, it must be confessed, is still in its cradle; and it may be the envied lot of some individual to point out more obvious and less fallible sources of distinguishing its contents than any that have been hitherto proposed. In the meantime, wherefore should the measurer of primitive forms, real or imaginary, deride the recorder of external characters? Their joint labours, even when aided by those of the chemist, will not, in all cases, suffice to indicate "*the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.*"

The identity of the qualities and constituents of arragonite and carbonate of lime is rather a stumbling-block in the way of ordinary crystallographers: but, if Mr. Chenevix does not wholly remove it, he passes over it with singular grace and dexterity. He is next disposed to make himself very merry at the expence of the Wernerian *transitions*: but, if such intermediate varieties actually occur in nature, they are neither to be overlooked nor misrepresented because they do not accord with our pre-conceived notions of species. In proportion as the study of natural history is cultivated and enlarged, these shadings and passages are daily observed; and, though they may put the adherents of rigid nomenclature to a little inconvenience, they are welcomed by the observer who surveys appearances as they occur, and who delights to trace those nicely adjusted gradations which, for aught that we know, may pervade the universe. Provided that a mixture of two simple species, however, can be satisfactorily ascertained, we are perfectly sensible of the impropriety of designating the *aggregate* by a separate *specific* name, because, as Mr. C. justly observes, the very essence of species is simplicity. With regard to the terms *modification* and *tendency*, they may no doubt be abused by men of narrow or distorted intellects, and with such the writer of the remarks appears to have held converse in Germany: but it nevertheless remains true that, until the place of a fossil substance in any proposed system be accurately settled, *wisdom* and *modesty*, as well as *ignorance*, may be implied in such phraseology. There may exist, provisionally at least, *modifications of species*, as well as *modifications of forms*; and with the latter, the most sturdy champions of crystallography are not, we presume, unacquainted. Nay, we can readily pardon their occasional use of an *à peu près*, because, although this homely adverbial expression at once breaks the spell of undeviating mathematical symmetry, it may perfectly accord with the reality of nature.

The multiplicity and clumsiness of the Wernerian divisions and subdivisions we have never professed to vindicate; nor shall we at present enter on any consideration of the arguments which have been employed both for and against the application of the *predominant* and the *characteristic* principle: but some weight, it will be allowed, is due to the following observation of Mr. Chenevix:

'I shall not inquire whether this principle has been followed in the distribution of minerals into genera, because that part of classification is of very inferior importance to that which relates to the determination of species. It is however to be observed, that our experience teaches us, more and more every day, that we have very gratuitously endowed certain elements with certain exclusive properties.

Silica is not the only substance, the aggregations of which may acquire a great degree of hardness. There are other earths, which may obtain a much greater degree of induration than it; of which the sapphire is an example, for that is chiefly composed of alumine; and the diamond, which contains no earth, is the hardest substance in nature. There are few, I suppose, who will view this last substance in the same light as a celebrated German did, when I stated to him some objections to the place assigned to this mineral in his classification, and noticed the knowledge we had already acquired with respect to its nature. "And who will tell me," said he, "that charcoal itself is not an earth?"

In the Wernerian nomenclature, we will not say that neither pedanty nor absurdity can be found: but, while Mr. C. treats it with an unsparing hand, he might have perceived that the vocabulary of his favourite system is equally open to criticism, and a striking monument of its author's vanity.

In the sequel, we observe a handsome and merited compliment to the German Professor immediately followed by three objections, of a general description, to the plan of his procedure. 1. 'He appeals only to our senses, and, therefore, to very incompetent judges.' This assertion is more specious than solid: for we may ask whether the senses have nothing to do in ascertaining crystalline forms? whether, with all their imperfection, they are adequate to note the most important external characters of minerals? and whether, while individual observers perish, the records of their observations descend to posterity? — 2. 'He has limited himself to description, when he ought to have given a definition.' This objection involves a question of some nicety, and which we cannot now discuss; namely, does mineralogy, in its present state, admit of the definitions of species? — 3. 'He has made it a principal object to exclude the assistance of the other sciences, for the purpose of making mineralogy as independent as possible of all foreign aid.' Let it borrow light and aid from every quarter, but let not its votaries indulge the dream that it is capable of being reduced to a series of mathematical propositions.

From the manner in which Mr. Chenevix disposes of M. D'Aubuisson's reply, we suspect that the zeal of the latter has outstripped his philosophy.

Mr. C.'s collateral reflections on the influence of national circumstances and character on the formation of scientific habits, &c. are highly deserving of transcription: but, as we have more than once intimated, we are constrained to exercise the painful duty of self-controul; and merely to recommend these, and other brilliant passages which occur in this little treatise, to the perusal of our discerning readers.

Art. V. *The Universal Cambist, and Commercial Instructor;* being a general Treatise on Exchange; including the Monies, Coins, Weights, and Measures of all trading Nations and Colonies; with an Account of their Banks and Paper-currencies. By Patrick Kelly, LL. D. Master of the Academy in Finsbury Square, London; and Author of different Works on Book-keeping, Exchanges, Spherics, and Nautical Astronomy. 2 Vols. 4to. pp. 812. 4l. 4s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1811.

On few subjects of magnitude is it more rare to meet with good books than on Commerce. The prevailing notion that every thing in trade must be learnt by practice, and the indifference to reading which is created by a long continuance of mercantile habits, have contributed to discourage both the composition of new books on trade and the diligent use of those which are already before the public. When we opened the present work, we were not impressed with the belief that it would prove a valuable addition to the existing stock. A triple dedication, to the Lords of Trade, the Bank-Directors, and the East India Company, 'in grateful acknowlegement of the early encouragement, important information, and liberal patronage with which they have honoured and promoted the undertaking,' appeared to us in the light of a contrivance to apprize the world that these several bodies were greatly interested in the said undertaking; and this feeling was by no means lessened on the perusal of the preface, which bears strong marks of what is vulgarly called a "puff." We have satisfaction, however, in adding that the more we advanced in the examination of the book, the more reason we discovered for rejecting our unfavourable impressions; and for forming the conclusion that, if the author has in any degree stooped to expedients for attracting notice which cannot be commended, he has not been unmindful of the necessity of more substantial claims to favour, having performed a very laborious task with much assiduity and attention to accuracy.

The first volume may be considered as a dictionary of the monies, weights, and measures, of all countries, on the plan of a work of great celebrity on the continent, called the Hamburgh Contorist, by Kruse. This book was published about half a century ago, and appeared to the magistracy of Hamburgh a performance of so much labour and merit as to induce them to grant the author a pension for writing it. Dr. Kelly has adapted it to the English standard, and has made several additions, relative partly to France, where monies, weights, and measures have, like other things, been completely revolutionized; and partly to the Western Hemisphere, of which the previous accounts had been very imperfect. An extract will convey a clearer idea of the plan than any description; and we make choice of parts of Dr. Kelly's account of the monies of a country with which, notwithstanding the cloud that at present obscures our mutual relations, we flatter ourselves that our intercourse will 'ere long be renewed and extended:

' AMERICA. *United States.*

' Accounts in the United States were formerly kept in Pounds, Shillings, and Pence currency, and this practice is still retained on some occasions; but the value of the currency is not the same in the different states.

' In Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, the ratio of currency to sterling is as 3 to 5; and therefore £1. sterling = £1. 13s. 4d. currency; or £1 currency = 12s. sterl.

' In New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Virginia, the ratio is as 3 to 4; and therefore £1 sterling = £1. 6s. 8d. currency; or £1 currency = 15s. sterling.

' In New York and North Carolina, the ratio is as 9 to 16; and therefore £1 sterling = £1. 15s. $6\frac{2}{3}$d. currency; or £1 currency = 11s. 3d. sterling.

' In South Carolina and Georgia, the ratio is as 27 to 28; and therefore £1 sterling = £1. 0s. $8\frac{8}{9}$d. currency; or £1 currency = 19s. $3\frac{3}{7}$d. sterling.'—

' Most of the European coins pass in the United States, but Spanish Dollars are most common:—hence the value of other European monies is commonly expressed in Dollars, and hundredth parts of a Dollar, called Cents. Thus a Pound sterling is valued at 4 Dollars, and 44 Cents; a Guinea, at 4,66; a Livre Tournois, at $18\frac{1}{2}$ Cents; a Dutch Gilder, at 39 Cents; a Hamburgh Mark Banco, at $33\frac{1}{3}$ Cents.'—

' The Dollar is valued in the different States according to the currency of each place.—Thus in Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, and Jersey, it passes for 7s. 6d.; in New England and Virginia, for 6s.; in New York and North Carolina, for 8s.; in South Carolina and Georgia, for 4s. 8d.

' A uniform way of keeping Accounts has been established in the United States (by an act of Congress in 1789), namely, in Dollars of 10 Dimes, 100 Cents, or 1000 Mills; and this method is used in all public accounts.'—

' In 1790, a public Bank was established at Philadelphia, called the UNITED STATES BANK. It was chartered by Congress, and invested with power to appoint branch-banks in the different states. The capital was fixed at ten millions of Dollars, and divided into 25,000 shares of 400 Dollars each; none of the subscribers were to hold more than 1000 shares; one fourth of the subscription was to be paid in specie, and three-fourths in public stock. These shares are transferable, and yield a dividend, payable half yearly, of 7 or 8 per cent. per ann. The constitution and government of this Bank are nearly on the plan of the Bank of England. The Bank discounts, at 6 per cent. per annum, bills and notes that have no more than 65 days to run.'—

'Money deposited in the bank may be drawn out again at pleasure, free of expence; but no money is paid to any person beyond the balance of his account.

'Bills or notes may be lodged in the bank, for collection; and the bank undertakes to procure payment, free of expence.

'European gold coins are received and paid at the bank according to the rates established by an act of Congress, which began in July 1793, viz. 89 Cents per dwt. for the coins of England and Portugal, 87 Cents per dwt. for those of France, Spain, and the Spanish dominions.

'Silver coins are received at the bank as follows — a Crown for 110 Cents; a Shilling for 22 ditto; a Dollar for 100 ditto; a Pistareen for 20 ditto.

'Other banks have also been established in Philadelphia, as well as in Boston, New York, Baltimore, Alexandria, and Charlestown, some of which were prior to the United States Bank; but they are chartered only by their respective states.

'The WEIGHTS and MEASURES in the United States are similar to those of England; except that in the states of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, sales are mostly made by the Quintal of 100, which, in the other states, are made by the cwt. of 112lb.'—

'The EXCHANGES of the United States of America with the principal trading places of Europe, are as follows: viz.—with

'London, 440 Dollars, more or less, for £100 sterling; or, in currency, at so much per cent. above or below par.

'Amsterdam, 39 Cents, more or less, for 1 Florin Banco.

'Hamburgh, 33 Cents, more or less, for 1 Mark Banco.'

In this manner, the author goes through the whole list of trading towns and countries, in alphabetical order, from Abyssinia to Zurich. Under the head *London*, have been added tables of the tares or allowances admitted on the part of government in regard to duty, and among merchants for the purposes of sale. The extension of trade in India since the publication of Kruse's book, and the access possessed by Dr. Kelly to documents at the India-House, have contributed to render the account of that part of the world much more ample than it was in any preceding publication. This dictionary of monies, weights, and measures, occupies 450 pages, being more than half of the work; the only other subject discussed in the first volume being the principles of weight and measure, or an account of the various efforts made to arrive at an invariable standard founded on some unalterable property in nature. This is put into the form of an introductory dissertation, and, without possessing any claim to originality, may be said to afford a sufficiently clear statement of the opinions and proceedings of others. Many of our readers may recollect that the attempt to form an invariable standard deeply engaged the attention of the French legislative body, in the beginning of the

Revolution, before the men of science were expelled and sacrificed by their sanguinary successors. In this country, no inquiry by authority has been instituted since the year 1758: at which time a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to report on the standards of English weights and measures; and without aiming at the favourite object of philosophers, the establishment of an unalterable standard, this Committee put on record a very clear and correct representation of English weights and measures. After having remarked the great differences in our practice according to local situation, and the want of complete agreement even in our standards, they recommended that our Troy pound should be made the unit or standard for regulating our Avoirdupois and other weights. In pursuance of experiments made by direction of the Committee with the most scrupulous accuracy, it was ascertained that the standard Avoirdupois pound kept in the Mint weighs exactly 7000 grains Troy; a weight strictly corresponding to that of the two other Avoirdupois standards, which have been preserved for centuries at the Exchequer and at Guildhall.

Dr. Kelly's second volume begins with an explanation of what is called the Chain-rule; a rule of equation which abbreviates greatly the labour of complex questions of exchange. Amsterdam having been long the centre of European exchanges, the attention of merchants in Holland was much more closely engaged by calculations of this nature than that of our countrymen; and facilities of computation, little known among us, have long been familiar to them. The chain-rule is chiefly adopted in what is termed the arbitration of exchanges, and is employed to discover whether a direct or a circuitous mode of remittance be most advantageous. The current rates of exchange at various places being ascertained, these rates are arranged in the way of equations, making two columns, antecedents and consequents: all the antecedents are then multiplied into each other, and the consequents likewise into each other; after which, the product of the latter being divided by the product of the former, the quotient is the answer in the denomination of the last consequent. The ensuing example will explain the practical application of this rule, and the political anecdote that follows will place its importance in a striking light:

> 'Suppose £1000 sterling is to remitted to Cadiz, and the direct Exchange is 40d. sterling per dollar, but the remitter wishes to send it through Holland and France, it s required to know, which is the most advantageous, the direct or indirect remittance, the quotation of the course of Exchange being as follows?—

'London on Amsterdam, 35 shillings Flemish per pound Sterling.
'Amsterdam on Paris, 60 pence Flemish for the ecu of 3 Francs.
'Paris on Cadiz, 15 Francs for 1 Doubloon of 4 dollars of Exchange.

STATEMENT.

£1000 Sterling.
1 Pound Sterling = 35 Shillings Flemish.
1 Shilling Flemish = 12 Pence Flemish,
60 Pence Flemish = 3 Francs.
15 Francs = 1 Doubloon.
1 Doubloon = 4 Dollars.

'Hence $\frac{1000 \times 35 \times 12 \times 3 \times 4}{60 \times 15} = \frac{50400}{9} = 5600$ Dollars.'—

'In 1804 Spain was bound to pay to France a large subsidy; and, in order to do this, three direct methods presented themselves—

'1. To send dollars to Paris by land.
'2. To remit bills of exchange directly to Paris.
'3. To authorise Paris to draw directly on Spain.

'The first of these methods was tried, but it was found too slow and expensive; and the second and third plans were considered as likely to turn the exchange against Spain. The following method by circular exchange was therefore adopted:—

'A merchant or banquier, at Paris, was appointed to manage the operation, which he thus conducted: he chose London, Amsterdam, Hamburgh, Cadiz, Madrid, and Paris, as the principal hinges on which the operation was to turn, and he engaged correspondents in each of those cities to support the circulation. Madrid and Cadiz were the places in Spain from whence remittances were to be made, and dollars were, of course, to be sent where they bore the highest price, for which bills were to be procured on Paris, or on any other places that might be deemed more advantageous.

'The principle being thus established, it only remained to regulate the extent of the operation so as not to issue too much paper on Spain, and to give the circulation as much support as possible from real business. With this view London was chosen as a place to which the operation might be chiefly directed, as the price of dollars was then high in England, a circumstance which rendered the proportional exchange advantageous to Spain.

'The business was commenced at Paris, where the negociation of drafts issued on Hamburgh and Amsterdam served to answer the immediate demands of the state; and orders were transmitted to those places to draw for their reimbursements on London, Madrid, or Cadiz, according as the courses of exchange were most favourable. The proceedings were all conducted with judgment and attended with considerable success.

'At the commencement of the operation the course of exchange of Cadiz on London was 36d. but by the plan adopted Spain got 39¼d, as may be seen by the following computation:—

'The several charges of the consignments of dollars from Cadiz to London amounted to 11 per cent. and they were sold at 5s. 7d. per oz —Hence

85 Dollars of Exchange = 64 Hard Dollars.
1000 Hard Dollars = 866 Ounces.
1 Ounce = 67 Pence.
111 Pence = 100 with Charges.
Reduced gives the Exchange 39¼d.

'Thus Spain gained above 8 per cent. by the remittance of dollars to London, and considerable advantages were likewise made by the circulation of bills through the several places on the Continent. Time was also gained for the payment of the Subsidy; and the course of Exchange, instead of being turned against Spain by direct remittances, was rather turned in her favour by this circular method of operation.'

A great part of the second volume is a dictionary for the exchange-transactions of the chief trading cities in the world, in the same way as the first volume is for their weights, measures, and coins. Beginning with London, the author explains her bill-negociations with Amsterdam, Hamburgh, Paris, Spain, Portugal, and the principal towns of Italy. A similar exposition is next given of the exchange-transactions of Amsterdam with the great trading cities of Europe; after which, Hamburgh, Paris, Genoa, Leghorn, Lisbon, Venice, Naples, &c. have each their turn. Those of our readers who have seen Dubost's Elements of Commerce will be enabled to form an idea of this part of Dr. Kelly's book; which, though chiefly a compilation from preceding works, is of great utility from the accuracy with which it appears to be executed, and the attention which has been bestowed in cases (such as Paris) where material changes in money-denominations have taken place.—This enumeration of specific currencies is followed by instructions on the subject of Exchange generally, the great object of which is to illustrate the arbitration of exchange; and to this is added Arbitration of Bullion and Merchandise, with examples of the use of logarithms and fixed numbers in abbreviating calculations connected with that subject. More than half of the volume being thus occupied with explanations bearing directly on the question of exchange, the remainder is appropriated to collateral topics; such as tables of the intrinsic value of coins, a description of the impressions on coins, and tables of the proportion between the weights and measures of all nations. The tables of the intrinsic value of coins being composed from essays made by Mr. Bingley, the present Assay-master at our Mint, and by Mons. Bonneville, *Essayeur du commerce* at Paris, appear to deserve particular attention. We note the sterling value of several of the principal coins.

	GOLD COINS.	Sterling. £.	s.	d.
France.	The Louis coined before 1786 .	0	19	10¾
	Ditto coined since Ditto .	0	18	10
	Napoleon, or piece of 20 francs .	0	15	10
	Double Napoleon, or piece of 40 francs	1	11	8
Hamburgh.	Ducat . . .	0	9	4½
Holland.	Ducat . . .	0	9	4
Portugal.	Moidore . . .	1	6	11¾
Rome.	Sequin . . .	0	9	3
Spain.	Pistole or doubloon of 1801 .	0	15	11½
United States.	Eagle . . .	2	3	6
	(half and quarter eagles in proportion.)			
India.	Mohur of Shah Allum, 1787 .	1	13	4½
	Surat Mohur, latest coinage .	1	9	2½

	SILVER COINS.			
France.	*Ecu* of six livres . .	0	4	8¾
	Piece of five francs, 1808, (Napoleon)	0	4	0¾
	Franc of 1809 . .	0	0	9¾
Hamburgh.	Rixdollar, specie . .	0	4	7½
Holland.	Rixdollar . . .	0	4	4½
	Florin or guilder . .	0	1	8¼
Portugal.	New Crusade (1802) . .	0	2	4
Russia.	Ruble of Alexander (1805) .	0	3	3
Spain.	Dollar of late coinage (this is the coin which is universally circulated)	0	4	3¼
United States.	Dollar of 1802 . . .	0	4	3¾
India.	Sicca rupee, coined by the Company	0	2	0½
	Arcot rupee of the latest coinage	0	1	11¾

That portion of the work respecting the utility of which we are disposed to entertain the greatest doubt is the translation of the legends, and the description of the impressions on coins. To a particular class of virtuosi, or bullion-merchants, such information will certainly be acceptable: but the proportion of such readers must be inconsiderable, compared with the total number of persons who may be interested in the other parts of the book. Of the latter, many are likely to turn over these pages with scarcely any other feeling than that of ridicule, which the tone of self-importance assumed by the least considerable nations has a tendency to excite. Thus we find that the Norwegian rix-dollar has inscribed on it, "Spirit, loyalty, valour, and whatever is honourable, let the *whole world learn* among the rocks of Norway." The Mohur of Tippoo Saib declares of that sovereign that "he alone is the equitable Sultan;" and of his father, of merciful memory, that the "faith of Mahomed is supported by the victories of Hyder; Hyder exalted in equity." The rupee of the notorious Nabob of Arcot is stamped, "The blessed coin of the conquering king;" and the Mohur of the last of the Mogul sovereigns had inscribed on it, "He who is the shadow of God's favour, the protector of the religion of Mahomet, the Emperor Shah Allum, coins money for the seven climates."

After so much has been said and written on the subject of bullion and exchange, it may not be unacceptable to our readers to see an extract from a table (p. 243.) of the intrinsic par of exchange between London and other cities, computed according to actual assay:

	In gold.	In silver.	Explanation.
Amsterdam currency,	37 3,75	38 7,75	Shillings and pence Flem. per £ Sterl.
Rotterdam,	11 3,8	11 11,8	Guilders and Stivers per £ Sterling.
Hamburgh Banco, (subject to variation)	34 1,4	35 1	Shillings and pence Flemish per £ Sterling.
Paris, new coins,	25 11 6	25 4 5	Livres, sols, and deniers per £ Sterl.
(otherwise)	25 26	24 91	Francs and cents per £ Sterling.
Cadiz,	37 16	39	Pence Sterling per dollar.
Lisbon,	67,4	69,5	Pence Sterling per Milrea.

This comparison of coins is followed by other statements of greater extent and labour, on the subject of the commercial weights and measures of different places. One of these is a table of the proportion of other weights to our Avoirdupois; from which it appears that 100lbs. Avoirdupois are equal to

	lbs.		lbs.
Amsterdam weight	91.80	Russia -	110.86
Antwerp	96.75	Scotland, pounds Dutch weight	92.11
Copenhagen	90.61		
Dantzic	103.07	Spain, Castilian weight	98.40
France, *poids de marc*	92.64	Vienna - -	81
Riga -	108.46	Warsaw, new Polish weight	112.25
Rome -	133.69		

We are next presented with a comparison of the Measures of length, 100 English feet being equal to the following numbers of feet in other countries respectively:

	Feet.		Feet.
Amsterdam - -	107.62	Rome -	103.45
Berne - - -	103.98	Spain -	107.91
France, Pieds de roi -	93.89	Sweden -	102.66
Rhine-land, a common measure in Germany and Holland	97.17		

In regard to Land-measure, the following are the numbers of acres corresponding to ten English acres:

England, roods - -	40	Ireland, acres	6.17
perches -	1600	Scotland, acres	7.87
France, old system, *arpents*	11.84	Saxony, acres	7.34
new system, *ares*	404.68	Spain, *fanegadas*	8.80
becatares	4.05	*arrauzadas*	10.47

The comparison of Road-measures is likewise a subject of some importance; and we have extracted the numbers of miles in several countries which are equal to one hundred in our own:

	Miles.		Miles.
Arabia, miles -	81.93	Germany, miles, long	17.38
Flanders, - -	25.62	short	25.66
Holland - -	27.52	Ireland, miles	57.93
France, leagues astronomical -	36.21	Italy -	86.91
		Rome, modern miles	86.91
Marine -	28.97	Ancient miles of 8 stadia	109.18
Land-measure (2000 toises) each	41.28	Russia, *versts*	150.81
Germany, miles, geographical -	21.72	Spain, *leguas* common	23.73
		ditto legal	37.97

Indefatigable in his researches into weights and measures, Dr. Kelly enters next into a comparison between those of Greece and Rome and those of England. In this view, as we might expect, some discrepancy exists between the different authorities, and we feel no desire here to appreciate their respective claims. We turn with greater pleasure to the concluding division of the volume, a mercantile index; which, under a name somewhat pompous for so limited a work, ('Commercial Dictionary,') will be found to comprehend a variety of useful explanations. We have selected several examples of words, which, though of frequent occurrence, are little understood, except by persons in mercantile life;

'ABANDONMENT, the act of relinquishing or giving up goods to creditors or underwriters, either in lieu of a debt, or to avoid the payment of charges.

'ACCOMMODATION, a term applied to the acceptance of a bill, when the drawee only lends his name; and the drawer engages to furnish him with the means of payment before the bill becomes due.

'ACCOUNT CURRENT, the personal account of a merchant or trader with each of his correspondents or customers, a copy of which account is transmitted to the person whose name it bears, shewing how affairs stand between the parties at the current or present time when made out.

'ACT OF HONOUR, an instrument drawn by a notary when a bill is accepted for the honour of another person.

'ADVICE, the information given *by letter* of a bill drawn by one merchant on another.

'ATTACHMENT, the act by which a creditor may claim and seize the goods of his debtor, in whatever hands he finds them.

'AVERAGE, a contribution made for losses at sea: it is distinguished into general and particular. *General average* is a proportionable contribution, paid by all the proprietors of a ship and cargo for losses, which are made with a view to safety, such as throwing goods overboard, or cutting away masts to prevent shipwreck. *Particular average* is a contribution for such damages or losses as may happen from the common accidents of the sea; here the average must be borne or paid by the proprietors of the article, which suffers the damage.

'BILLS OF LADING, papers signed by the master of a ship, acknowleging the receipt of certain goods on board his vessel, and promising to deliver them at the intended place.

'BILLS, NAVY, bills issued by the navy board in payment of stores for the ships, dock yards, &c. They are made payable at 90 days, with an interest of 3½d. per day on each £100.

'BOTTOMRY, a contract or loan on a ship in the nature of mortgage; but it differs from other loans and mortgages, inasmuch as the interest is higher, and the security not so certain; for if the ship be lost, neither loan nor interest can be demanded.

'CHARTER PARTY, a contract executed between the person who hires a ship, and the owner, setting forth the terms, &c. A ship is said to be chartered when hired for a voyage.

'COMMISSION OF BANKRUPTCY, an order under the great seal, directing five or more commissioners to enquire into the affairs of a bankrupt.

'CONSIGNMENT, the sending or delivering over of goods to the care of a factor.

'COUNTERVAILING DUTIES, equal duties established between two countries, and charged on the importation and exportation of the same kind of goods.

'DAYS OF GRACE, a certain number of days allowed for the payment of a bill after the written term is expired.

'DEMURRAGE, is an allowance made to the master of a ship for being detained in port longer than the time agreed upon.

'Docket, a short memorandum or summary affixed to larger papers, or a bill of direction tied to goods, shewing the place where, and the person to whom, they are to be delivered. Striking a docket is when a creditor gives bond to the Lord Chancellor, proving his debtor to be a bankrupt.

'Lombard, a bank for lending money on pawn, so called from the Lombards, a people of Italy, who, in former times, followed this trade in different parts of Europe.

'Manifest, a paper containing the particulars of a ship and cargo, which paper must be signed by the master of the vessel, before any of the goods can be landed.

'Respondentia, a bond or contract by which money is borrowed on the security of goods, the same as in bottomry on the security of ships.

'Tontine, a loan raised on life annuities with the benefit of survivorship. Thus, an annuity after a certain rate of interest is granted to a number of subscribers, who are divided into classes according to their ages; and annually the whole fund of each class is shared among its survivors, till at last it falls to one, and on his death it reverts to the power that first established the Tontine. The term is derived from the name of the inventor.'

We are now to take leave of Dr. Kelly; and this we do with a conviction that his 'Cambist' will be an useful appendage to the counting-houses of our merchants. Being apparently unacquainted with political economy, he does not shine on such subjects as the principles of exchange; nor can we, notwithstanding the favourable alteration produced in our ideas by the examination of the performance, pronounce it equal on the whole to the character which the author seems anxious to give it in the preface: but it has considerable value as a practical work, as well for the purpose of reference on the part of the experienced merchant, as for exercise to his juvenile assistants. It is time that our merchants should know that the acquisitions of young men in counting-houses may be greatly quickened by the use of books; and that such works as Kelly's Cambist and Booth's Book-keeping present in one view a mass of information, which it would require many years of practice in business to collect.

Art. VI. *Bibliomania; or Book Madness; A Bibliographical Romance, in Six Parts. Illustrated with Cuts. By the Rev. Thomas Frognall Dibdin. Large 8vo. pp. 800. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.*

We have expressed our sentiments on the dignity of the book-collector, compared with other *literary* characters, in our review of Mr. Beloe's last volume of bibliographical Anecdotes:

Anecdotes[*]: but our present object is to appreciate the merits of an account of a more comprehensive nature. Mr. Beloe was contented with telling us *something* of scarce books, and their possessors; and Mr. Dibdin (his bibliographical brother) gives us a larger portion of general knowlege on the same or similar subjects, while he also furnishes us with an original dialogue on the rise, progress, and cure of 'Book-Madness.' This dialogue forms the text, or "*body of the work*;" and the matters of information mentioned above are thrown into copious and really instructive notes. We say *really instructive* notes, addressing ourselves to those who are most likely to peruse this volume, namely the Bibliomaniacs themselves, who are the subjects of its ironical commendation: but when we thus praise Mr. Dibdin's '*notification*,' (as he ludicrously, though with a lamentable seriousness, intitles it, page 703.) we must enter our most strenuous protest against the heaviness of his text. "Some authors," as Goldsmith observes, "are good at the *body of the work*;"—others succeed in hitting off an index; this for a preface; that for a table of contents; Mr. Dibdin for '*notification*.'

That we may at once prove to our readers how correctly we have discriminated between the successful and the unsuccessful efforts of the present author, and shew them that we are impartial judges of the truth when we allow Mr. Dibdin much bibliography and little humour, we shall offer them, in this early part of our critique, an ample extract from a portion of the volume that perhaps as much as any other displays the difference which we regret being compelled to specify. The selection is from the sixth and last department of the volume, called the 'Alcove;' and the characters in the dialogue are Lysander, Lisardo, Philemon, Almansa, and Belinda[†].

'Lysand. You wish to know what are the SYMPTOMS OF THE BIBLIOMANIA?—what are the badges, or livery marks, in a library, of the owner of the collection being a bibliomaniac?

'Alman. Even so. My question yesterday evening, was—if I remember well—whether a *mere collector* of books was necessarily a bibliomaniac?

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[*] See M. R. Vol. lxiii. N. S. page 1.

[†] It is obvious, even to book-collectors, that the present volume wants a key. We have heard the name of sundry of the real characters (where such are intended) who are made to bear the fictitious title of the *Dramatis Personæ*. Thus, for instance, *Lisardo* has been mentioned to us as Mr. Heathcote; *Hortensius* as Mr. Bolland; *Atticus* as Mr. Heber; *Rinaldo* as Mr. Edwards; and *Menalcas* as Mr. Drury; with what degree of correctness, we presume not to affirm.

‘Lysand. Yes; and to which—if I also recollect rightly—I replied that, the symptoms of the disease, and the character of a bibliomaniac, were discoverable in the very books themselves!

‘Lis. How is this?

‘Alman. & Belin. Do pray let us hear!

‘Phil. At the outset, I entreat you, Lysander, not to overcharge the coloring of your picture. Respect the character of your auditors; and above all things have mercy upon the phlogistic imagination of Lisardo!

‘Lysand. I will endeavor to discharge the important office of a bibliomaniacal Mentor, or, perhaps, Æsculapius, to the utmost of my power: and, at all events, with the best possible intentions.

‘Before we touch upon the *Symptoms*, it may be as well to say a few words respecting the *General Character* of the BOOK DISEASE. The ingenious Peignot* defines the bibliomania to be ‘a passion for possessing

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‘* LA BIBLIOMANIE est la fureur de posséder des livres, non pas tant pour s'instruire, que pour les avoir et pour en repaître sa vue. Le bibliomane ne connait ordinairement les livres que par leur titre, leur frontispiece, et leur date; il s' attache aux bonnes éditions et les poursuit à quelque titre que ce soit; la reliure le seduit aussi, soit par son ancienneté, soit par sa beauté,’ &c. *Dictionnaire de Bibliologie*; vol. i. p. 51. This is sufficiently severe: see also the extracts from the *Mémoires de l'Institut*: p. 32, ante. The more ancient foreign writers have not scrupled to call the BIBLIOMANIA by very caustic and merciless terms: thus speaks the hard-hearted Geyler: ‘Tertia nola est, multos libros coacervare propter animi voluptatem curiosam. Fastidientis stomachi est multa degustare, ait Seneca. Isti per multos libros vagant legentes assidue: nimirum similes fatuis illis, qui in urbe circumeunt domos singulas, et earum picturas dissutis malis contuentur: sicque curiositate trahuntur, &c. Contenti in hâc animi voluptate, quam pascunt per volumina varia devagando et liguriendo. Itaque gaudent hic de larga librorum copia, operosa utique sed delectabilis sarcina, et animi jucunda distractio: imo est hæc ingens librorum copia ingens simul et laboris copia, et quietis inopia—huc illucque circum agendum ingenium: his atque illis pregravanda memoria.’
Navicula sive Speculum Fatuorum; 1511, 4to. sign. B. iiij. rev.

‘Thus speaks Sebastian Brandt upon the subject, through the medium of our old translation:

Styll am I besy bokes assemblynge
For to have plenty it is a plesaunte thynge
In my conceyt, and to have them ay in honde:
But what they mene do I nat understonde.
Shyp of Folys; see p.274 ante:

‘There is a short, but smart and interesting, article on this head in Mr. D'Israeli's *Curiosities of Literature*; vol. i. 10. “Bruyere has touched on this mania with humour; of such a collector, (one who is fond of superb bindings only) says he, as soon as I enter his house, I am possessing books; not so much to be instructed by them as to gratify the eye by looking on them.' This subject has amused the pens of foreigners; although we have had nothing in our own language, written expressly upon it, 'till the ingenious and elegantly-composed poem of Dr. Ferriar appeared; after which, as you well know, our friend put forth his whimsical brochure*.

'Whether

I am ready to faint on the stair-case from a strong smell of Russia and Morocco leather. In vain he shews me fine editions, gold leaves, Etruscan bindings, &c.—naming them one after another, as if he were shewing a gallery of pictures!" Lucian has composed a biting invective against an ignorant possessor of a vast library. "One who opens his eyes with an hideous stare at an old book; and after turning over the pages, chiefly admires *the date* of its publication." But all this, it may be said, is only general declamation, and means nothing!

'* The first work, I believe, written expressly upon the subject above discussed, was a French publication, entitled *La Bibliomanie*. Of the earliest edition I am uninformed; but one was published at the Hague in 1762, 8vo. Dr. Ferriar's poem upon the subject, being an epistle to Richard Heber, Esq.—and which is rightly called by Lysander 'ingenious and elegant'—was published in 1809, 4to: pp. 14.: but not before an equally ingenious, and greatly more interesting, performance, by the same able pen, had appeared in the Trans. of the Manchester Literary Society, vol. iv. p. 45—87.—entitled '*Comments upon Sterne;*' which may be fairly classed among the species of bibliomaniacal composition; inasmuch as it shews the author to be well read in old books; and, of these, in Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy in particular. Look for half a minute at p. 376, ante. In the same year of Dr. Ferriar's publication of the Bibliomania, appeared the '*Voyage autour de ma bibliothèque; Roman Bibliographique:*' by Ant. Caillot; in three small duodecimo volumes. There is little ingenuity and less knowledge in these meagre volumes. My own superficial work, entitled, '*Bibliomania*, or *Book-Madness: containing some account of the History, Symptoms, and Cure of this fatal Disease; in an epistle addressed to Richard Heber, Esq.*' quickly followed Dr. Ferriar's publication. It contained 82 pages, with a tolerably copious sprinkling of notes: but it had many errors and omissions, which it has been my endeavour to correct and supply in the present new edition, or rather newly-constructed work. Vide preface; p. vi. Early in the ensuing year (namely, in 1810.) appeared '*Bibliosophia, or Book-Wisdom: containing some account of the Pride, Pleasure, and Privileges of that glorious Vocation, Book-Collecting. By an Aspirant. Also; The Twelve Labours of an Editor, separately pitted against those of Hercules,*' 12mo. This is a good humored and tersely written composition; being a sort of Commentary upon my own performance. In the ensuing pages will be found some amusing poetical extracts from it. And thus take we leave of PUBLICATIONS UPON THE BIBLIOMANIA!'

'Whether Peignot's definition be just or not, I will not stop to determine: but when I have described to you the various symptoms, you will be the better able to judge of its propriety.

'Lis. Describe them *seriatim*, as we observed yesterday.

'Lysand. I will; but let me put them in battle array, and select them according to their appearances. There is, first, a passion for *Large Paper Copies;* secondly for *Uncut Copies;* thirdly, for *Illustrated Copies;* fourthly, for *Unique Copies;* fifthly, for *Copies Printed upon Vellum;* sixthly for *First Editions;* seventhly, for *True Editions;* and eighthly, for *Books printed in the Black-Letter.*'

The preceding extract needs no comment. On the two works (viz. "the Epistle to Richard Heber, Esq.," and "Bibliosophia, or Book-wisdom,") celebrated in the latter part of the passage, we shall say something presently; having given Mr. Dibdin a precedence on account of *bulk* which he does not claim in point of *time.* We have now to make our readers more fully acquainted with one of the most dangerous symptoms of the madness in question, to adopt Mr. Dibdin's style of facetiousness. Our limits would not permit a fuller detail of the diagnostics, if our inclination to cite them at length were stronger than it is.

The meaning of the phrase 'true editions' appears to us more likely than any of the rest to puzzle the uninitiated in the mysteries of book-collecting. Nay, even the πολλα βιβλια ὠνουμενοι may here be ἀπαιδευτοι, (in a more confined sense than that in which they usually are uninstructed,) and a bibliomaniac himself, if not full-grown, may require information.

'Tell us, good Lysander, what can you possibly mean by the *seventh symptom* of the Bibliomania, called TRUE EDITIONS?

'Lysand. My definition of this strange symptom will excite your mirth*. Some copies of a work are struck off with deviations from the

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'* Accidental variations from the common impressions of a work form what are called TRUE EDITIONS: and as copies, with such variations (upon the same principle as that of *Prints;* vide p. 672-3, ante) are rare, they are of course sought after with avidity by knowing bibliomaniacs. Thus speaks Ameilhon upon the subject:—'pendant l'impression d'un ouvrage il est arrivé un accident qui, à telle page et à telle ligne, a occasioné un renversement dans les lettres d'un mot, et que ce désordre n'a été rétabli qu'apres le tirage de six ou sept exemplaires; ce qui rend ces exemplaires défectueux presque uniques, et leur donne à les entendre, une valeur inappréciable: car voila un des grands secrets de cet art, qui, au reste, s'acquiert aisément avec de la mémoire.' *Mem. de l'Institut;* vol. ii. 485. The author of these words then goes on to abuse the purchasers and venders of these strange books; but I will not quote his saucy tirade in defamation of this noble department of bibliomaniacism. I subjoin a few examples in illustration of Lysander's definition:

'*Cæsar.*

the usually received ones, and although these deviations have generally neither sense nor beauty to recommend them, (and indeed are

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'*Cesar. Lug. Bat.* 1636, 12mo. *Printed by Elzevir.* In the Bibliotheca Revickzkiana we are informed that the *true* Elzevir edition is known by having the plate of a buffalo's head at the beginning of the preface and body of the work: also by having the page numbered 153, which *ought* to have been numbered 149! A further account is given in my Introduction to the Classics, vol. i. 228.

'*Horace.* Londini, 1733, 8vo. 2 vol. Published by Pine. The *true* edition is distinguished by having at page 108. vol. ii. the *incorrect* reading 'Post Est.'—for 'Potest.'

'*Virgil.* Lug. Bat. 1636, 12mo. Printed by Elzevir. The *true* edition is known, by having at plate 1., before the Bucolics, the following Latin passage *printed in red ink.* "Ego vero frequentes a te litteras accepi"—Consult de Bure, n°. 2684.

'*Idem.* Birmingh. 1763, 4to. Printed by Baskerville. A particular account of the *true* edition will be found in the second volume of my 'Introduction to the Classics,' p. 337.— too long to be here inserted.

'*Boccacio* Il Decamerone, Venet. 1527. 4to. Consult De Bure, n°. 3667; Bandini, vol. ii. 105, 211.; (who, however, is extremely laconic upon this edition, but copious upon the anterior one of 1516.) and Haym, vol. iii. p. 8. edit. 1803. Bibl. Paris. n°. 408. Clement. (vol. iv. 352.) has abundance of references, as usual, to strengthen his assertion in calling the edition '*fort rare.*' The reprint, or spurious edition, has always struck me as the prettier book of the two.

'These examples appeared in the first edition of this work. I add to them, what of course I was not enabled to do before. In the present edition of *The Bibliomania*, there are some variations in the copies of the small paper; and one or two decided ones between the small and large. In the small, at page 13, line 2, we read

'beat with perpetual *forms*:'

in the large, it is properly

'beat with perpetual *storms*.'

'Which of these is indicative of the *true* edition? Again: in the small paper, p. 275, line 20, we read properly

'Claudite jam rivos pueri, sat *prata* bibêrunt:'

in the large paper,

'Claudite jam rivos pueri, sat *parta* bibêrunt:'

It was in my power to have cancelled the leaf in the large paper as well as in the small; but I thought it might thereby have taken from the former, the air of a *true* edition! and so the blunder (a mere transposition of the letters *ar*) will go down to a future generation in the large paper. There is yet another slight variation between the small and large. At p. 111. in the account of the catalogue of Krohn's books, the concluding sentence wholly varies: but I believe there is not an *error* in either, to entitle one to the rank of *Truism* more than another.'

principally *defects!*) yet copies of this description are eagerly sought after by collectors of a certain class. What think you of such a ridiculous passion in the book-way?

'Alman. It seems to me to be downright ideotism. But I suspect you exaggerate?

'Lysand. In sober truth, I tell you only what every day's experience in the book-market will corroborate.'

We hope that it is scarcely necessary for us to state that we pointedly except the conclusion of the last note from the praise which we have bestowed on the generality of these Bibliographical Collectanea. Indeed, the egotism of the allusions to his own work, in which the author has here indulged, would discredit any bibliomaniac; and we hope that it will be one of his *first omissions* from any future edition of the volume, should such extraordinary fortune attend it. When we speak of this event as unlikely, we are guided only by the improbability of such a passion as that of mere book-collecting being long and generally prevalent among the readers or purchasers of any country. That which is wholly unfounded in reason may, for a time and partially, affect *reasonable* beings: but some new whim will infallibly expel the old one as soon as chance so ordains. While, however, bibliography is in season, and the sunshine of its honour lasts, Mr. D. is perfectly judicious in "*making his hay*;" and we rate him as a workman of as much strength and activity as any one of his contemporaries who labours in the same field.—We proceed to give some more general account of the contents of his volume, and of its especial excellencies and defects.

We have made an extract from the concluding chapter of this 'Romance,' as it is the pleasure of the author to denominate a work which is totally unallied to such a species of composition. The contents of the preceding sections are the following:

'Part 1st. THE EVENING WALK. On the right uses of Literature. 2d. THE CABINET. Outline of Foreign and Domestic Bibliography. 3d. THE AUCTION ROOM. Character of Orlando. Of ancient Prices of books, and of Book-binding. Book-auction Bibliomaniacs. 4th. THE LIBRARY. Dr. Henry's History of Great Britain. A Game at Chess. Of Monachism and Chivalry. Dinner at Lorenzo's. Some account of Book Collectors in England. 5th. THE DRAWING ROOM. History of Bibliomania, or account of Book Collectors concluded. 6th. THE ALCOVE. Symptoms of the Disease called the Bibliomania. Probable means of its Cure.'

To this last article we anxiously turned: but "Oh! lame and impotent conclusion!" After 730 pages, many of which are filled with closely printed notes, all tending to encourage 'Book-Madness' in some shape or another, we have *ten* pages devoted to the *probable* means of its *cure!* Monstrous! It reminds us of Falstaffe's tavern-bill, which the Prince and Poins found behind the arras,—" one halfpenny-worth of bread to all this unconscionable quantity of sack!"—But let us examine the course of corrective medicine which Mr. Dibdin recommends.

'In the first place,' says our fashionable physician, who "excites the madness which he seems to cure," 'the disease of the Bibliomania is materially softened, or rendered mild, by directing our studies to useful and profitable works; whether these be printed upon small or large paper, in the Gothic, Roman, or Italic type.' Mr. D. might here have introduced, as an enlivening accompaniment to his obvious remark, Johnson's proper answer to an "Aspirant," (as Mr. D. would call him,) who wished to know what edition he should read of Shakespeare: "the first you can find on any stall." A noble author cannot be utterly spoiled by any editor; nay, so little power have these "resurrection-men," the posthumous editors, over the spirit of a writer, much as they may maul his body, and how profitably soever they may sell it to their "surgeons" the booksellers, (or rather the public, who are the *dissectors*,) that we question whether even a —— could thoroughly condemn the works of a ——.

'In the second place,' says Lysander, 'the reprinting of scarce and intrinsically valuable works is another means of preventing the propagation of this disorder.' Here we perfectly agree with the author. It is plain, as far as the symptom of "First Editions" is concerned, that the Bibliomania must be cured (*in any who are not incurable*) by the correct reprint of such editions.

The third recipe is 'the editing of our best antient authors, whether in prose or poetry.' Here our bibliomaniac allows that we are laudably zealous for the honour of our country: but, in one department of literature, he thinks that we fail to maintain that honour; viz. in antient English history. The Saxon Chroniclers, we suppose, in Mr. D.'s opinion, have not been sufficiently sifted: but, sift them as we will, we shall now find little else than chaff. They may have untouched remains sufficient to furnish out a tale, or to embellish a poem: but as to *knowlege* concerning our early condition, beyond what we have already extracted from them, we are perfectly incredulous. Some prejudices of our popular historians may be corrected,—some biasses of private opinion may be set right,—but that the main stream of English story does not flow straight through the channel of Saxon writ, we never can believe. We have examined (in our younger days) the references of the standard modern historians: they are, on the whole, accurate; and if some petty intrigues and obscure assassinations, and some feasts and festivals, be left out in the detail of major and minor morals of earlier and latter times, what reader would have so little patriotism or so little taste as to care for the omission?

In the fourth place, the erection of 'public institutions' is recommended; by which the prescriber means such book-societies (if they may be so called) as 'the Royal, London, Surrey, and Russel Institutions.' Now that these better libraries may counteract a foolish fondness for dealing at circulating libraries, or may stop some ladies'-maids in their progress towards the destruction of themselves and their mistresses, *according to order*, is certain: but that they are likely to cure the disease of Book-collecting, or Bibliomania, properly so called, we do not conceive. In short, most of Mr. D.'s recipes are worse than his disease; and his last, namely, 'the study of bibliography,' is really like administering Bark in the Gout, or large doses of Calomel in a Diarrhœa.

We have now to observe that, in the catalogues (and prices affixed to those catalogues!) of curious collections of books, or at all events *in extracts* from such records, in accounts of picture-sales, and in chronological, bibliographical, and general indexes, Mr. D. is unrivalled. We enter into no examination of his transcript from the list of Steevens's black-letter rarities,—of Count M'Carthy's books on vellum,—of Rembrandt's prints with the burr*, or without it,—of the Marlborough Gems,—or of books printed for private distribution at a private press. We pass by the names of famous bibliomaniacs, with an unfeeling want (as Mr. D. expresses himself) of 'BIBLIOMANIACISM;' and, alarmed by this barbarous phrase, so frequently repeated in the present volume, we come to a severer account with its author.

We had hopes, on looking over the second edition of Dibdin's classics, that the numerous errors there corrected would be a beacon to the writer in any subsequent publication; and when we saw the gross mistake concerning the play of Aristophanes called Εκκλεσιαζουσαι, which disgraced the first edition of that work, banished from the second, we rejoiced in the amendment of that compilation, and were not surprised to perceive various other emendations:—but alas! "*crimine ab uno disce omnes*" seems too just a motto for a general account of bibliographers. They have nothing to do with classical learning; and the glaring defects of Mr. Beloe* in this department of knowlege are but too faithfully represented in his "*frater fraterrimus*," Mr. Dibdin.—*Voila!* page 210. 'One of Virgil's heroes, *to the best of my recollection*, dies serenely upon thinking of his beloved *countrymen*,

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* 'The burr (we adopt Mr. Dibdin's definition) is a sombre tinge attached to the copper before the plate is sufficiently polished by being worked; and gives a smeared effect, like smut upon a lady's face, to the impression!' 'These imperfections rarely occur, and *consequently*, make the impression more valuable.'

"—— *dulces moriens reminiscitur Argos*?"'

Mr. D. is evidently of opinion that it matters not whether a man be "THEBIS *nutritus an* ARGIS:"—but from his *nonchalance* on this point, it might be considered as doubtful where he was '*nutritus*' himself. *Bœotian* Thebes, however, seems a more likely spot than any other; and thus one more exception is furnished to the antient privilege of dulness claimed by that district of Greece;—Hesiod and Pindar do not now stand alone.

Not contented with his *Argive* vagaries, Mr. D. (page 25.) talks of 'the Grecians and *Romans* contending for the palm of victory upon Troy's plain!' Yes, incredulous reader, turn to the passage, and then turn to the errata, and see that it is uncorrected! Lucretius calls the Romans *Æneadæ*. Mr. Dibdin reverses the licence. Well, well, "Hector of Greece was a pretty fellow in his day;"—and we have already seen in a modern elementary history, Theseus, or Alexander the Great, (we forget which, but certainly one of them) present at the battle of Marathon! Mr. D. is kept in countenance.

At page 295. we find him displaying a new system of Latin grammar, when he speaks of concluding '*this* Erasmiana,' and modestly adds, 'if the reader will permit me *so* to entitle it!'—and at page 656. 'I thank you,' says Lisardo, 'for *this* Grolleriana.'—As we are of opinion that our readers will thank us for concluding *these Dibdiniana*, we hasten to that "consummation so devoutly to be wished."

A few strictures more, *en passant*, will be all that we shall insert, out of a numerous list of criticisms that force themselves on almost any reader of the volume. At page 99. a '*Catalogue Raisonné* of the MSS. and printed books in the Bodleian library' is mentioned 'as an *urgent desideratum*.'—The 'sensible and affectionate sons of *alma mater* are reminded what Wanley and Messrs. Planta and Nares have done for the Cottonian and Harleian MSS., and what Mr. Douce is now doing for those of the Lansdowne collection!'—'One gentleman alone, of a very distinguished college,' is then introduced allusively, 'in whom the acuteness and solidity of Porson seem *almost* revived;'—some advice is offered for the execution of the design;—and it is added 'that the aged hands of the present venerable Librarian of the Bodleian Library can do little more than lay the foundation-stone of such a massive superstructure?' 'but even this,' observes our exulting bibliomaniac, 'would be sufficient to enrol his name with the Magliabecchis and Baillets of former times, to entitle him to be classed among the best benefactors to the library, and to *shake hands* with its immortal founder, in that place where *are*—

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* We need not refer to Payne Knight's Essay on Taste for the proof of this position. We refer to Herodotus—*passim*.

> ———— "*et amœna vireta*
> *Fortunatorum nemorum, sedesque beatæ.*" '

In what a taste is all this conceived and written!

Our next extract shall be from the 'Dialogue;' that portion of the book of which we have already given a general and just account, but of which the 'heaviness' cannot be sufficiently appreciated even from our first quotation. Let our readers patiently peruse the following *jeu d'esprit:*

'The arrival of Almansa and Belinda, the sisters of Lorenzo, put a stop to the conversation. So abrupt a silence disconcerted the ladies; who, in a sudden, but, it must be confessed, rather taunting, strain—asked whether they should order their bed-chamber candlesticks, and retire to rest?

'Lis. Not if you are disposed to listen to the most engaging book-anecdote orator in his majesty's united realms!?

'Alman. Well, this may be a sufficient inducement for us to remain. But why so suddenly silent, gentlemen?

'Loren. The conversation had ceased before you arrived. We were thinking of a *hung-beef sandwich* and a glass of madeira to recruit Lysander's exhausted powers. He has been discoursing ever since dinner.

'Belind. I will be his attendant and cup-bearer too, if he promises to resume his discourse. But you have probably dispatched the most interesting part.

'Lysand. Not exactly so, I would hope, fair Lady! Your brother's hospitality will add fresh energy to my spirit; and, like the renewed oil in an exhausted lamp, will cause the flame to break forth with fresh splendor.

'Belind. Sir, I perceive your ingenuity, at least, has not forsaken you—in whatever state your memory may be!'—

Again we make no remarks. Those of our friends who are acquainted with the style of Walton's "Complete Angler," will observe *how well* the *naïveté* of the conversation between Messrs. *Auceps*, *Piscator*, and *Venator*, is borrowed by Mr. D.'s interlocutors.—While we are talking of style, we could produce a variety of parallel elegancies to the following, (p. 626,) from every part of the present Bibliomania: 'A delicious breeze, wafted over a bed of mignionette, had electrified me in a manner the most *agreeable imaginable*.' We have also—'*a* useful work,'—and '*a* unique edition,'—and sundry other examples of accuracy.—The conceit of calling any literary curiosity ‘ quite a κειμηλιον in its way!’ may be slightly mentioned: but the egotism of the subjoined passage “ outdoes” Mr. D.'s former “ outdoings” in the same department. Among the works printed on large paper in this country, Mr. D. has introduced the following:

‘ History of the Town of Cheltenham, and its Environs. 1802. 8vo. There were a few copies of this superficial work printed upon large paper in royal octavo, and *a* unique copy upon paper of a quarto size; which latter is in the possession of my friend Mr. Thomas Pruen, of the same place. A part of this volume was written by myself; according to instructions which I received to make it ‘ *light and pleasant.*’ An author, like a barrister, is bound in most cases to follow his instructions! As I have thus aukwardly introduced myself, I may be permitted to observe at the foot of this note, that all the Large Paper Copies of my own humble lucubrations have been attended with an unexpectedly successful sale!’ &c. &c.

Let no one henceforwards assert that the portrait of Mr. Puff is a caricature!

We shall briefly observe that, as Mr. D. has amended some of his errors of a trifling description, (for instance, he has rightly substituted * *Hugh* for *Richard* Farmer, as it stands in the Bibliomania, p.565.) we hope that he will attend to more important points in future. We have suggested some to his consideration; and, on the score of accuracy, we at present shall add only the following. When, in a note at page 20, he gives some account of early publications in this country in the shape of Reviews, he says; ‘ after these’ (i. e. some obscure works in the 17th century) ‘ in the subsequent century appeared the “ *Old and New Memoirs of Literature*;” then “ *The Works of the Learned*;” upon which was built ‘ *the Monthly Review.*’ We decline to insert the very complimentary terms in which we are mentioned: but we must remark that, before and after “ the Works of the Learned,” (1737—1743) Mr. D. has omitted some other publications, both in London and Dublin; particularly “ *The present State of the Republic of Letters,*” in 14 volumes, 8vo. London, 1727—1734.

As we really wish to allow Mr. Dibdin all the credit that he can claim, (much as we feel averse from encouraging his favourite study,) we again acknowlege that his notes abound in information, admirably adapted to the taste of the bibliographical reader; and we shall subjoin a favourable specimen of the sort of entertainment which he offers to this class of Students. ‘ The *Book*-auction loving *Bibliomaniac*’ (as Mr. D. writes it, with some degree of tautology,) will assuredly be pleased with the anecdotes here related:

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* In the Gentleman's Magazine for June last.

'A pleasant circumstance occurred to the Rev. Dr. Charles Burney. At a small sale of books which took place at Messrs. King and Lochée's, some few years ago, the Doctor sent a commission for some old grammatical treatises; and calling with Mr. Edwards to see the success of the commission, the latter, in the true spirit of bibliomaniacism, pounced upon an anciently-bound book, in the lot, which turned out to be—nothing less than the *first edition* of Manilius by Regiomontanus: one of the very scarcest books in the class of those of which we are treating!! By the liberality of the purchaser, this *primary bijou* now adorns the noble library of the Bishop of Ely.'

'A singular story is 'extant' about the purchase of the late Duke of Roxburgh's copy of the first edition of Shakspeare. A friend was bidding for him in the sale-room: his Grace had retired to one end of the room, coolly to view the issue of the contest. The biddings rose quickly to 20 guineas; a great sum in former times: but the Duke was not to be daunted or defeated. A slip of paper was handed to him, upon which the propriety of continuing the contest was suggested. His Grace took out his pencil; and, with a coolness which would have done credit to Prince Eugene, he wrote on the same slip of paper, by way of reply—

lay on, Macduff!
And d——d be he who first cries 'Hold, enough!'

'Such a spirit was irresistible, and bore down all opposition. The Duke was of course declared victor, and he marched off, triumphantly, with the volume under his arm. Lord Spencer has a fine copy of this first edition of Shakspeare, collated by Steevens himself.'

Having discharged our duty of censure and of praise as far as the present writer is concerned, we must crave his permission to conclude this critique with an extract from the "Ship of Fools;" that ingenious old work, of which the generally successful ridicule is never more happy than when it is levelled at the illiterate book-collector. As the sentiments of the author are in this case perfectly coincident with our own, we shall borrow his quaint but vigorous expressions, and bid adieu to the subject. We wish, indeed, that it accorded with our plan to copy the wood-cut (which Mr. D. has copied) from the passage in the work in question: but the verses present a sufficiently accurate portrait of this extraordinary species of character, who can bear to have his hobby-horse derided, and actually "glories in his shame." We transcribe the lines from the quotation in the Bibliomania, page 274.:

'I am the firste fole of all the hole navy
To kepe the pompe, the helme, and eke the sayle:
For this is my mynde, this one pleasoure have I—
Of bokes to haue great plenty and aparayle.
I take no wysdome by them: nor yet avayle
Nor them perceyve nat: And then I them despyse.
Thus am I a foole, and all that serue that guyse.
Shyp of Folys, &c. Pynson's Edit. 1509. fol.'

We feel regret at having been obliged to speak harshly of some features in the volume before us; and when we peruse Mr. D.'s high encomiums on our work, in a note which we have already mentioned, we are almost ashamed at thus returning censure for courtesy: but we hope that whatever is, in consequence, denied to us on the score of politeness, will be conceded to us on that of impartiality; — a much more requisite quality in a public critic, and which is too often questioned, in these heterodox days, by those who do not believe in that infallibility which we have so long endeavoured to maintain!

☞ In giving the title of this article, (p. 270.) the price of the book is by mistake put down 1l. 1s. instead of 1l. 7s.

Art. VII. *The Bibliomania,* an Epistle to Richard Heber, Esq. By John Ferriar, M.D. 4to. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1809.

THE names in the title-page of this little pamphlet are such as cannot fail to attract attention, and to ensure respect. Accordingly, just as we were beginning to exclaim, with unusual impatience, "too much of this!" the above-mentioned names recalled us to our composure; and we were assured that half an hour could not be ill spent in perusing a "*printed*" letter from Dr. Ferriar to Mr. Heber. The well-known scholarship and accomplishments of these gentlemen are calculated, however, to throw a false lustre over their favourite pursuit. "*Tali auxilio et defensoribus istis,*" the bibliomaniac may raise his degraded head, and—"hang a *calf*-skin on his recreant limbs!" We cannot, in truth, pursue any strain of compliment to this growing race of literary abortions; and we earnestly wish that Dr. Ferriar, and every other scholar, would always so act, speak, and write, as to discountenance any other passion for books than for the knowlege of their contents, when they are worth knowing.

After a due compliment to Mr. Heber, and his brother of 'the tuneful tongue,'

'By Isis' streams which mourning Zion *sung*,'*—

(or, rather more *plainly*, "which *sang* mourning Zion, by Isis' streams,") this pleasing little poem attacks the *mere* book-collector in the following strain of satire. Would it had been more severe!—we mean on its immediate and proper subject.

'But devious oft' from every classic Muse,
The keen Collector meaner paths will choose:
And first the Margin's breadth his soul employs,
Pure, snowy, broad, the type of nobler joys.

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* The allusion is to Mr. Reginald Heber's "Palestine."

In vain might HOMER roll the tide of song,
Or HORACE smile, or TULLY charm the throng;
If crost by Pallas' ire, the trenchant blade
Or too oblique, or near, the edge invade,
The Bibliomane exclaims, with haggard eye,
'No Margin!' turns in haste, and scorns to buy.
He turns where PYBUS rears his Atlas-head,
Or MADOC's mass conceals its veins of lead.
The glossy lines in polish'd order stand,
While the vast margin spreads on either hand,
Like Russian wastes, that edge the frozen deep.
Chill with pale glare, and lull to mortal sleep.'

So much for the lover of 'Large Paper.'—The next passage, in which any thing like a just indignation is shewn, is that which is directed against the collector of 'Illustrated Copies:'

'Now warm'd by ORFORD, and by GRANGER school'd,
In Paper-books, superbly gilt and tool'd,
He pastes, from injur'd volumes snipt away,
His *English Heads*, in chronicled array.
Torn from their destin'd page, (unworthy meed
Of knightly counsel, and heroic deed)
Not FAITHORNE's stroke, nor FIELD's own types can save
*The gallant VERES, and one-eyed OGLE brave.
Indignant readers seek the image fled,
And curse the busy fool, who *wants a head*.

expect,—and derives, we have no doubt, incomparably more from his professional exertions.

Trusting, however, that the admiration of the outside of a volume will not *wholly* deter the Doctor from examining the better part with his usual ingenuity and sagacity, we conclude our brief notice of the present trifle with a quotation which promises to dismiss our readers in good humour with the author. Alluding to the 'avocations' above mentioned, Dr. F. thus ludicrously extracts good from evil; and the simile of Vesuvius will not appear very hyperbolical to those who have suffered the miseries of protracted recitation:

> 'Such wholesome checks the better Genius sends,
> From dire rehearsals to protect our friends:
> Else when the social rites our joys renew,
> The stuff'd Portfolio would alarm your view,
> Whence volleying rhimes your patience would o'ercome,
> And, spite of kindness, drive you early home.
> So when the traveller's hasty footsteps glide
> Near smoaking lava, on Vesuvio's side,
> Hoarse-mutt'ring thunders from the depths proceed,
> And spouting fires incite his eager speed.
> Appall'd he flies, while rattling show'rs invade,
> Invoking ev'ry Saint for instant aid:
> Breathless, amaz'd, he seeks the distant shore,
> And vows to tempt the dang'rous gulph no more.'

ART. VIII. *Bibliosophia*; or Book-Wisdom; containing some Account of the Pride, Pleasure, and Privileges of that glorious Vocation, Book-Collecting. By an Aspirant. Secondly, the Twelve Labours of an Editor, separately pitted against those of Hercules. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Miller. 1810.

THE collectors of books are much obliged to those persons who attach such importance to their favourite pursuit, as to make it the subject of satire and panegyric, and to wage a sort of literary warfare about them. We suspect, however, and so will our readers, (if they give themselves the trouble to think of the matter, which we are far from advising them to do,) that this is entirely a warfare of collusion*; and that the *Sophias* and *Manias* (which we humbly entreat our compositor not to print *Marias*) are in truth all of one and the same family. Having finished our remarks on the latter of these "terminants," (which we also beg may not be misprinted

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* It is plain, in fact, that such is the case, from the ample quotations which Mr. Dibdin gives us from "Bibliosophia," and from Dr. Ferriar's "Letter," in the work already reviewed.

"termigants") who was a dame of bulky dimensions, dressed in a green habit turned up with yellow, (like jealousy and the jaundice,) most loquaciously hyppish; we now turn to the younger sister, who is in every respect opposite to the elder,—a modest little lady, in russet-dun, who smiles at her sister's complaints, and endeavours to laugh her into good humour with herself. Perhaps we may allow that this young lady is not without *some* power of amusement; and that she has a *parlous* wit, which she sometimes displays with more volubility than judgment. She introduces herself with a poetical *exposé* of the collector's creed, consisting of a certain number of maxims. The verse, if we shall not (again) be deemed *impolite*, we must venture to call "doggrel:" but we take at random the 'second maxim:'

> 'Who, with fantastic pruning-hook,
> *Dresses the borders* of his book,
> Merely to ornament its look—
> Amongst Philosophers a fop is:
> What if, perchance, he thence discover
> Facilities in turning over?
> The *Virtuoso* is a Lover
> Of coyer charms in "UNCUT COPIES."'

Having done with *trying her maxims*, the lady sets out in prose to demonstrate the charms and advantages of the family-pursuit; in order to effect which purpose, she institutes a comparison between the collector of books and the reader of them, greatly to the advantage of the former. In many instances, the irony is well kept up: but the *merit* of the production (if we may express ourselves seriously on such a trifle) rather consists in occasional good hits than in the character of the whole, or of any large part of it. Mr. D., (that is, the fat elder sister, *Mania*,) as we have recorded, describes the symptoms of the disorder to be eight: but the younger lady rallies her sister, and persuades her that these symptoms, individually and collectively, (inasmuch as they can exist together, for the lady shews that the symptoms of 'Vellum and Large Paper copies' cannot exist together,) so far from being diagnostics of disease, are in fact indicative of perfect sanity.—We shall select a few passages. After having panegyrized 'Large Paper-Copies,' we come to 'Uncut Copies;' a proportionable praise is bestowed on them, and the advantages of this symptom are exposed as follows:

> 'I fear not to pronounce that the governing motive of the *Collector*, in saving his Copy *uncut*, is one which has been noticed on other occasions, as ever present to his mind—that of strongly discriminating his own "Pursuits of Literature," from those of the *Student*, who in-

variably discovers a strange partiality for Cut *copies*. The former, by preserving perpetually inviolate the comfortless, and embarrassing roughness of the edges, (a torment which has been unaccountably overlooked by Messrs. Testy and Sensitive, among the "Miseries" of the *Reader*,) significantly notifies, that his attachment to the volume is carefully and effectually purified from all that relates to its *interior*.

'Thus confidently taking it for granted, that the leading allurement of his *rough-edged Copy*, in the eyes of the Collector, resides in the impediment with which it harasses the Book-worm, who may chance to meddle with it, — I feel myself irresistibly impelled to unveil before the world a most horrible imagination, which has just presented itself to my thoughts, on the subject of these Uncut Copies.

'Let us conceive, then, (as far as it is possible to conceive it,) what would be the sensations of a zealous Worshipper of Uncut Copies, if, on repairing, in the exultation of his Soul, to that shelf, which, but a week before, had had the honour of sustaining a lengthened line of the *raw* literature in question, he should find that some officious Goth, assuming the name of a friend, and plotting an agreeable surprize, had been secretly clawing away every volume of them to the Binder; who is found, by the distracted Collector, in the act of briskly setting them up in their places,—the once precious ruggedness of their edges *now* sprucely trimmed, and shaved away,—and those intractable leaves which had teized the impatient and impertinent finger of curiosity, from age to age - - - suddenly butchered out of their reserve, — and then, after so unparalleled an act of violation, turned loose upon the world, and, all at once, become as free, common, and accessible, as . . . . the Coffee-house volumes of a Newspaper!'

Under the head of 'Illustrated Copies,' we meet with a specimen of burlesque-irony, with which our readers will perhaps be amused:

'Let the Historian but obliquely allude to a long-forgotten Name, — and with stupendous alacrity, the Power of Illustration has dragged the world of curiosity for every *effigies*, genuine, or spurious, by every graver, of every age, from every country, in every degree of excellence, and in every stage of preservation, down to the last dregs of ruin: — *Io triumphe!* — *there* they are, and *in* they shoal, upon the groaning, bursting volume! — Let the writer but have innocently hinted that his Hero, or his Hero's cousin, had a house to live in, — and, while the press is working the intelligence, representation upon representation of the last rafter of every dwelling, suspected to have been *once visited* by either, is ready to push into its place! — Did an illustrious (and accordingly illustrated) Personage, ever sit down? — *there* is his chair, — or, at least, a leg of it. — Did he ever write? *There* are his pot-hooks and hangers. — Did he, like a late venerable Prelate, occasionally relax from the toils of a study, by watching the drolleries of his kitten? — *There* is Puss.—'

The following is another specimen of the same description, and found under the same head:

'You are quite conscious, without any occasion for being reminded of it by me, with what bias you peruse your *Granger*; (a particular instance is always clarifying;) — that you journey through him, line by line, and word by word, with a jealous watchfulness, altogether unknown to the mere reader for instruction. Your business is, if possible, to extract *something graphic* out of every sentence: — thus: —You find mention of a man; — if of a celebrated man, the better; if not, still of a man;

(———————— "*rem*;
Si possis, rectè; si non, quocunque modo, *rem*;")

you proceed — a certain tree is noticed as having occasionally afforded shelter to your man:—a little further;—a magpie is reported to have haunted your tree: — enough for the present; you have taken in your lading of subjects for enquiry: your *Man*, obscure though he now be, may, once, have been remarkable enough to set the engraver at work: — but his favourite *tree?* — it is not your fault that no representation of it has been discovered; for not a crevice of virtù has been left unsearched. Your Author, however, has fortunately been minute in his reference, and has dispatched you, with an artist at your back, to the Shetland Isles, in one of which, the tree was perverse enough to grow; it is happily found, and accurately copied. The drawing is, in the next place, as carefully etched, as it was carefully sketched: it is modern, to be sure: but that objection is dazzled away, by the splendour of the means to which it owes its birth, and of which the full history is recorded by your own hand, in a MS. memorial behind. —— But the *magpie?* — alas; alas! as the man, and the tree, flourished 750 years ago, the magpie *must* be no more; and - - - - it never sat for its picture!'

The allusions to an illustrated copy of *Tom Thumb*, which the author flatters himself will not exceed the limits of *fifty atlas volumes*, are not without humour; and some farther references to this old and fruitful subject of various ridicule occur in another part of the book. The proposal, at page 66., for the establishment of a College of Collectors, in which the science may be pursued with academic advantages, and degrees bestowed according to the proficiency of the students, has also some felicity of manner: but we have no more room for the consideration of a subject, which it is only out of deference to the taste of some of our readers that we discuss at any length or treat with any distinction.

Of the comparison between the labours of Hercules and that of an editor, we can only say that it is a comparison without any particular similitude in the objects compared; and that as much humour might have been shewn, and more amusement afforded, if the battles of our popular pugilists, (with all their new treasury of phrases) or the *labours* of the prolific Queen of Holland, had been made the subject, instead of the *labours* of the demi-god of antiquity.

Art. IX. *Memoirs of the latter Years of the Right Honorable Charles James Fox.* By John Bernard Trotter, Esq. Late Private Secretary to Mr. Fox. 8vo. 14s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1811.

Although this volume has been published only about a couple of months, we shall probably have to announce to a very few of our readers its merits or its demerits. To numbers of them, it has already spoken for itself; and their murmurs, no longer low and dubious, have apprized us of the fact. Complaint, indeed, echoes from every quarter; and one unanimous voice has passed an irrevocable sentence on the 'Private Secretary' and his labours. It cannot be any gratification to us to aggravate the painful situation of an individual, who, at no great distance of time, experienced a trying reverse in his fortunes, not occasioned by any personal demerit; and who has since in an evil hour, by his own act, incalculably increased his misfortunes by incurring the resentment of a generous and honest public, for sins both of omission and of commission: but we owe it to the illustrious dead, and to that public, not to pass unnoticed this instance of signal delinquency, which it is very difficult to release from the suspicion of being wilful. Even the title-page of this performance calls for the exercise of our severer functions; since no equal portion of the volume so much misleads as the statement of that page. The book should have been termed, not *Memoirs of the latter years of Mr. Fox, by Mr. Trotter*, but *Memoirs of Mr. Trotter, during the latter years of Mr. Fox, by Himself.* With this designation the work completely harmonizes; and every reader complains that in this bulky volume we do not behold nor listen to Mr. Fox, but that it is Mr. Trotter who on all occasions presents himself to view. The ostentatious *professions* made in the preface are of no avail against this charge, although they shew in their true colours the pretensions of the private secretary, who sets himself up as a more proper guardian of the fame of Mr. Fox, than his affectionate and accomplished relatives and his distinguished friends: but why does Mr. Trotter misconstrue the intentions of these high parties, as stated by Lord Holland in the preface to Mr. Fox's History, from which he quotes? Mr. T. would have the public understand that Lord Holland and Mr. Fox's friends object to having any account of Mr. Fox's life given to the public; when he well knows, and when it is stated in the very passage which he cites, that the objection lay only to the time, and that it is in the same preface declared that the family were collecting materials for such a publication: — but let us hear Mr. Trotter: 'My opportunities of knowing the value of Mr. Fox's character were such rare ones, that I bend to the necessity of stating historic truth, as far as I can.' Again he says;

> 'AS ONE OF THE ILLUSTRIOUS DEAD'S SINCERE AND DEVOTED FRIENDS, I never entered into any compact to abstain from giving the public any information I could upon the most interesting subject that can occupy the attention of all liberal and patriotic characters, of every lover of the human race, of science, of virtue, and of their country. I cannot compromise the interests of truth, and the venerable fame of him who is now no more! his is truly the
>
> "Clarum et venerabile Nomen,"
>
> which to me shines as with the light of a beacon, to guide me through the maze of conflicting and complicated parties. Never shall I think of sparing the delicacy of politicians, when the resplendent luminary from whom they borrowed their lights is concerned; — no shadow, — no spot, — shall remain upon his orb, if the honest touch of truth can remove it. If the good of an empire, and the wishes of millions for information; if the honour and name of Fox are concerned, I cannot stop to consider of wounding "the feelings of individuals." I shall suppress no truth, no circumstance. I stand before my country, not daring to be false, and I offer to the shade of Fox the imperfect, but genuine and unbiassed homage of a faithful tribute to his memory.'

We might appeal to Mr. Trotter's readers whether these promises have been in any degree fulfilled in his work: but how far he has served the interests of truth, or consulted the fame of his patron, or cleared (to adopt his own expressions) *the orb* of which he speaks from *shadows or spots*, or *gratified the wishes of millions*, or how *faithful* has been *his tribute to the memory of Fox*, it is our duty to consider and report.

In spite of the boasts which we have transcribed, a genuine trait of Mr. Fox occurs more rarely in this volume than a valuable fact in the pious legends of the dark ages; and Pindar, with whose writings Mr. Trotter affects to be well acquainted, is not more forgetful of his professed subject, than is this self-constituted guardian of Mr. Fox's fame. The preface contains another specimen or two of the modesty of the private secretary, which will deserve the reader's attention. Animadverting on Lord Holland's account of his illustrious relative's return to politics, and on the expression, "that the remonstrances of those friends, for whose judgment he (Mr. Fox) had the greatest deference, ultimately prevailed,"—'I know,' says Mr. Trotter, alluding to his retirement, 'that the basis of his determination was a solid and grand one; that occasionally at his breakfast-table we had a little discussion on this point, and that Mrs. Fox and myself uniformly joined in recommending retirement, until the people

felt

es of the domestic circle.—We next come to a passage
plainly shews the complexion of this work, and
ssimilates with every other part of it in which the
bject is introduced. ‘There is an idea which will,
very much elucidate the point, and make things
than the circumlocution of Lord Holland. The
anted a *leader!*—It is very obvious to me, that to
want may be attributed the sollicitations which “ulti-
prevailed” against Mr. Fox's better and undistorted
nt.’ Does the spirit of this passage, or the typogra-
arks which distinguish it, shew the veneration of the
ecretary for the fame of his patron? Is this the way
faithful tribute to his memory, and to remove *shadows*
from his orb!—‘The party wanted a *leader!*’—The
vill attend to the italics and the note of admiration of
ted secretary, and reflect on what must have passed in
when he introduced these distinguishing marks. Is
party here used in a good or a bad sense? Who com-
party? The bosom-friends of Mr. Fox: those friends
re the boast and pride of his life. Yet those friends,
ve credit to Mr. Trotter, had no attachment to Mr. Fox,
that ‘they wanted a leader.’—Let us see whether
himself fares better in this account. Does it not
im as a weak and vain man, who yielded, against his
on, to the sollicitations of people who had no value for
who only courted him because ‘they wanted a leader?’
he light in which Mr. Trotter, the sincere and devoted
exhibits his patron; and this is his mode of removing
nd shadows from his orb!’ The statement is at variance

just to his memory, owe it to him to believe that he did not yield to either measure till he was satisfied of its propriety.

Thus we see that the Private Secretary scarcely makes his extravagant professions of devotion to his patron, before he violates them; and while he only covertly aims his thrusts at the illustrious shade, he takes no pains to disguise his enmity to his surviving friends. He commences his warfare, as we have seen, in his preface, and carries it on with unabating animosity through the body of the volume to its last pages.

The reader of discernment now perceives, or will soon discover, that the object of this singular volume is two-fold; the primary motive is to enhance the consideration of the author; the second is to degrade and render odious the friends of his late patron, and strip them of every shred of political consideration. The glory of Mr. Fox is mere machinery. It suits well the first of the proposed objects, but it altogether exceeds the ingenuity of the private secretary to make it harmonize with the latter; and thus we find that in this volume we are sometimes required to view Mr. Fox exhibited in the attitude and in the robes of divinity, and at other times he is pointed out to us as the associate of blunderers and knaves. It is true that, although he is implicated in blundering and knavish acts, and gives such acts his sanction, some excuse is always made for him, and the narrative still describes him as a paragon of worth and wisdom: but we are disgusted with the absurdity of seeing the professed devoted servant of Mr. Fox, an avowed and inveterate adversary of all Mr. Fox's friends, with the exception of two or three, who are not prominent political characters. The Lords Grenville, Grey, Lansdowne, Lauderdale, and Erskine, Messrs. Sheridan, Grattan, and Ponsonby, are all under the anathema of the Private Secretary. He does not spare Lord Holland, also, who is treated very much in the same manner with his illustrious uncle: he is praised to appearance, while repeated blows are covertly aimed at him. We are ashamed to acknowlege the many moments that we have wasted in attempting to account, in our own minds, for this strange enmity. That a man who owes all his consideration to Mr. Fox, and who professes admiration for him which knows no bounds, should hate what Mr. Fox loved, should expose what he protected, should vilify the guardians of his patron's fame, the depositaries and the supporters of his principles, — how are we to explain a phænomenon so singular? The private secretary, in another part of the volume, stating how much Mr. Fox was courted after his accession to power, adds, 'I, too, found myself courted and caressed by persons who now do not know or care if I exist.' This passage has suggested to us the possibility, that these distinguished persons neglected to pay to the Private Secretary the attentions to which he thought his situation intitled him. If they were guilty of any neglect of this sort, severely have they been visited for it, and we will not be their defenders. It may be some apology for them that the College of Heralds has not, we believe, fixed the rank of a minister's private secretary: but it was inexcusable not to know that the private secretaries of ministers are great personages, if such information were only to be derived from recollecting the consideration which Gil Blas enjoyed, when he filled that high situation under the Duke of Lerma.

In exhibiting Mr. Trotter to our readers as, we think, he exhibits himself in his work, we do not conceive that we have placed before them a very bad subject. The idea, indeed, is repelled by the notice with which he once was honoured; although we have been informed that he owed this notice to his being the near relative of a very respectable person to whom Mr. Fox was greatly attached. If we have had and shall have occasion to point to some of his less estimable qualities, he may possess others which redeem them; and his assiduity as an attendant on a sick couch must be among the number. Had Mr. Trotter been contented to rank with the specimens of nature's ordinary workmanship, he might have passed without much of praise or blame: but he has chosen to place himself by the side of one on whom she lavished her choicest gifts, and it is not surprising if he suffers by the comparison. In a professed friend and admirer of Mr. Fox, what can so much offend and revolt as disingenousness? and yet we fear that Mr. Trotter, in the very commencement of his work, studiously practises an artifice of this kind. From what he writes, every reader must conclude that, previously to the excursion to the continent, Mr. Trotter had been a frequent visitor at St. Anne's Hill, and had been intimately acquainted with its illustrious occupier. The whole of his language seems framed with a view to induce this belief: many things are asserted and more are intimated by him, which are inconsistent with any other supposition; and references and allusions occur frequently in the course of the volume, which would be preposterous if the fact had been otherwise. While we were examining this part of the author's labours, therefore, the absolute want of information in it occasioned us to peruse it several times, lest something of moment should have escaped us; and we were willing rather to charge ourselves with inattention, than to accuse the pages before us of total barrenness. This examination opened our eyes to the guarded and studied structure of the phraseology, which never directly avers the fact of a long and intimate acquaintance with Mr. Fox previously to this period, but leaves it to be inferred by the reader. By comparing, also, this with other parts of the volume, we perceived that, although in all the interesting scenes Mr. Fox was neglected, the author never overlooked himself, but that the most was always made of such circumstances in order to assist his own display. Had Mr. Trotter, then, at the period to which we allude, been well acquainted with Mr. Fox, and a frequent visitor at St. Anne's Hill, our information respecting that statesman might still have been as scanty as it is at present, but we should have infallibly been told much of Mr. Trotter during such time. The volume, however, contains nothing of that nature; and consequently we were led to suspect that the information here failed because the author had none to communicate. After these conjectures and inferences, we took the pains to ascertain how the matter really stood; and we learned, from a quarter of indubitable authority, that, before Mr. Fox's excursion to the continent, he seldom saw Mr. Trotter, and only for a few days at a time; — that Mr. Fox never talked confidently to Mr. Trotter on matters of any importance, nor even before him on any thing relating to public men and measures.

Nevertheless, the early part of the volume professes to describe St. Anne's Hill, (Mr. Fox's residence,) and the amusements and studies of its illustrious inhabitant. Yet again we say that in this, as in all other parts of the book, we search in vain for sayings or incidents which indicate the genius or illustrate the worth of Mr. Fox. The work which the author designates as the 'one small record unmixed with and uncontrolled by party motives, that shall afford to posterity, if it survive, some means, though imperfect, of appreciating the private character of the most illustrious, but *often the most calumniated* of the public men of the eighteenth century,' — contains comparatively none of them. Seldom does Mr. Fox appear in these pages: but when he is introduced in them, it is as the subject of laboured panegyric. All that elevates our nature, or renders it attractive, is liberally ascribed to him; the superlative degree is constantly used; all the laudatory epithets in the language are employed; and if high colouring were the only requisite in a picture, the author's performance would be striking and complete. All this, we conceive, might have well been spared. It is, to say the least of it, superfluous; since few dispute the abilities and the worth of our lamented statesman.

The following is rather a favourable specimen of the sort of information which is to be derived from the scanty accounts of this volume with respect to Mr. Fox:

'At a time of life when other men become more devoted to the pursuits of ambition, or to that mean and universal passion, avarice; and when their characters accordingly become rigid, and unproductive of new sentiments, Mr. Fox had all the sensibility and freshness of youth, with the energetic glow of manhood in its prime. Knowledge of the world had not at all hardened or disgusted him. He knew men, and he pitied, rather than condemned them. It was singular to behold such a character in England, whose national characteristic is rather philosophic reasoning than the sensibility of genius. When I first beheld St. Anne's Hill, the impression was the most agreeable I had ever received. Every thing recalled to my mind the stories of Greece and Rome. I saw a man of a noble family, eminent for his genius and talents — an orator of unrivalled powers — the friend of liberty — the encourager of the fine arts — the classical scholar — I saw him retired to the lovely rural spot he had chosen, and said within me, " This is a character of antiquity; here is genuine greatness." I entered this modest mansion, and found the picture of a youthful mind realized.'

We insert another passage, which will give our readers a just idea of the general miscellaneous nature of those pages of this work which more immediately relate to Mr. Fox:

'When I first visited St. Anne's Hill, the summer was yet young, and all the freshness of nature was upon that beautiful spot: its sloping glades were unparched by autumnal suns — the flowers and shrubs were redolent with sweets, and the full choir of birds, which burst from every tree and shady recess, fill the heart with gladness, and with that reviving sentiment of pleasure, which is felt by minds of sensibility at that period. The rich expanse of cultivated country; the meadows, corn, woods, and villages, till the sight caught the far distant smoke of London; the graceful Thames, winding below the hill, which was the interesting residence of England's greatest character, gave a magical, but not delusive, effect to all I saw. This picture of serenity and rural happiness, when the rash and imperious councils of the English Cabinet were every where producing discord, and laying the foundation of French aggrandizement, was sufficiently striking to impress the imagination in a most powerful manner; and the long series of calamities which followed — blood, devastation, and torture, in Ireland; — suspension of constitution in England; — overthrow of ancient continental kingdoms, — and the continually and fearfully augmenting power of regenerated France, subsequently gave to the feelings of that moment a prophetic stamp, which has been confirmed to a degree that is astonishing, even to those who, in the commencement of his crusade, dreaded the effects, and foretold many of the consequences of Mr. Pitt's measures.'

The remaining leaves of this part of the volume are occupied in inveighing against the enemies and censuring the friends of Mr. Fox; in arraigning his *projected* union with Mr. Pitt, and his *actual* union with Lord Grenville. This nobleman is reminded that with Mr. Pitt he was the joint oppressor of Ireland; and that, by coming into power with him, Mr. Fox somewhat diminished the lustre of his reputation: but it is rarely that Mr. Trotter treats his patron's colleague in office so gently as in the present instance.

Mr. T. seems to think that the most extravagant abuse of Mr. Pitt is an acceptable offering to the manes of his departed patron: but he errs eggregiously in his worship in this respect; and his intemperance, we apprehend, not less offends the generous shade, than does his rancour against those whom Mr. Fox left to be the assertors of his principles and the guardians of his fame. In the opinion of Mr. Trotter, Mr. Pitt was altogether an ordinary man; he was only 'what office might have made of others; there were a thousand Pitts; his supremacy was only over clerks, secretaries, and members of Parliament; he was inadequate to fill any considerable department of the state; any ingenious banker or skilful accomptant might easily have rivalled him. The passions of the vulgar made and kept him minister.' Mr. Trotter appears to us to be as much mistaken in his notions of the towering minister, as he is on most other points in which he presumes in this volume authoritatively to decide. We cannot see, moreover, any good reason for his refusing to Mr. Pitt his acknowleged pre-eminent powers; since we cannot discover that Mr. Fox's fame is raised by depreciating a successful rival. Yet this is more intelligible than the scheme of founding a monument to Mr. Fox's glory on the ruined credit of his friends.

Mr. Fox's excursion to the continent follows next in order, and it occupies by far the greater part of the volume; yet in no part of it is Mr. Fox more overlooked. Two passages only exhibit him in a light that is interesting; these record *traits* which are characteristic of him, and stand alone in the narrative. We shall lay them before our readers. The scene of the first is a dinner at a restaurateur's at St. Cloud. Mr. and Mrs. Fox, the amanuensis, (for that seems to have been Mr. Trotter's principal character in this tour,) and M. de Grave, who had been during the revolutionary period Minister of Justice, formed the party. The ci-devant minister had promised Mr. Fox to shew him the interior of the Chateau, but had not been able to fulfill his engagement, and appeared to be much chagrined. Mr. Fox's conduct on the occasion is exactly what was to be expected from him:

'Mr. Fox consoled us with a sort of playful humour, that was very diverting, and at the same time perfectly good-natured. I do not recollect, indeed, any occasion when he was more animated than this evening.'—

'He spoke, with excellent discrimination, of the noble families he had known long previous to the revolution; the folly and absurd pride of some, he treated in the happiest manner; the admirable characters of others, female as well as male, and their genius and acquirements, he dwelt upon with unqualified admiration. He strove to lead M. de Grave from his uneasiness in the most engaging manner, (for M. de Grave had engaged to procure us admission to the chateau.) It was something of Cicero in the de Oratore, dwelling upon illustrious departed characters, illustrious as well by birth as eloquence, virtue, and accomplishments. The destruction of the old government, the death, emigration, or distress of many of these noble persons, a complete substitution, not only of new government, but change of property and honours, making this eloquent retrospective view still more interesting. The great character himself, who was taking it, worthy of antiquity, and speaking from his own knowledge, with an animation in which affection, veneration, and gratitude, were all blended, and all powerfully and visibly operating.'

The other anecdote relates to the notice taken of Mr. Fox at the *Théatre Français*, the principal French theatre:

'He was very soon recognized by the audience in the pit: every eye was fixed on him, and every tongue resounded Fox! Fox!—The whole audience stood up, and the applause was universal. He, alone, to whom all this admiration was paid, was embarrassed. His friends were gratified by the honour bestowed on this great man, by a foreign, and till lately hostile people. It was that reward which crowned heads cannot purchase—respect and gratitude from his fellow men, for his exertions in favour of humanity, and an honourable peace. So unwilling was Mr. Fox to receive the applause as personal, that he could not be prevailed upon to stand forward; nor when his name, repeatedly pronounced, left no doubt of the matter, could he bring himself to make any obedience or gesture of thanks. No man had ever less vanity, or rather was so totally devoid of it as Mr. Fox, and, perhaps, through the genuine modesty of his nature, he seemed deficient, on this occasion, in respect to the audience.'—

'We saw the first consul in his box for the first time: the light was thrown from the stage upon his face, so as to give an unfavorable and ghastly effect. I could not judge well of his countenance. He was received with some applause, but much inferior to that bestowed on Mr. Fox.'

The interview with Bonaparte is thus related:

'The moment the circle was formed, Buonaparte began with the Spanish Ambassador, then went to the American, with whom he spoke some time, and so on, performing his part with ease, and very agreeably: until he came to the English Ambassador, who, after the presentation of some English noblemen, announced to him Mr. Fox!—He was a good deal flurried, and after indicating considerable emotions, very rapidly said—"*Ah! Mr. Fox!—I have heard*

heard with pleasure of your arrival — I have desired much to see you — I have long admired in you the orator and friend of his country, who, in constantly raising his voice for peace, consulted that country's best interests — those of Europe — and of the human race. The two great nations of Europe require peace ; — they have nothing to fear ; — they ought to understand and value one another. In you, Mr. Fox, I see with much satisfaction, that great statesman who recommended Peace, because there was no just object of war ; who saw Europe desolated to no purpose, and who struggled for its relief."

'Mr. Fox said little, or rather nothing, in reply, — to a complimentary address to himself, he always found invincible repugnance to answer ; nor did he bestow one word of admiration, or applause upon the extraordinary and elevated character who addressed him. A few questions and answers relative to Mr. Fox's tour, terminated the interview.'

If we except these passages, the long narrative of the tour and of the residence at Paris discloses little besides the sensibilities of the author, his researches relating to the towns through which he passed, his observations on the manners of the people, and an enumeration of the books which he read to Mr. Fox on the journey, together with his own, not Mr. Fox's, criticisms on them. Most of the anecdotes which he relates have been long ago as well authenticated, and better told, in the newspapers, magazines, and pamphlets of the day. This detailed account contains only one solitary quotation from the mouth of Mr. Fox ; and the remaining part of the record, *which is to afford posterity the means of appreciating his private character*, scarcely supplies another.

On Mr. Fox's accession to power, he appointed the author his private secretary : but of Mr. Fox, as minister, the private secretary could not be expected to give any information, nor does he affect to do so. From Mr. Trotter's own account, it appears that Mr. Fox was always extremely guarded in behaviour when he was present. The volume contains testimonies of Mr. Fox to the affection and assiduity of the writer : but it discloses nothing which shews that he thought favourably of Mr. T.'s talents or his discretion ; though it affords strong grounds for drawing a directly opposite inference.

Though, in the praises of all kinds which the private secretory heaps upon his patron, language even fails him, it is not less true that he ventures to find fault with all the last great acts of that patron's life ; and that he even feels more strongly on the subject than he chuses to express. He disapproves of Mr. Fox's quitting his retirement ; and the coalition with Lord Grenville appears to be extremely offensive to him. With the opposition to revoking the union with Ireland, also, he is highly displeased, although this came from Mr. Fox ; and he severely censures the neglect of that country, though we learn from him that Mr. Fox was chargeable with this neglect. Party, also, is extremely odious to him, though Mr. Fox was all his life the advocate of party, and always acted in one. Mr. Fox, we may rest assured, was well aware of these political obliquities of the private secretary: but they did not disqualify him for his humble office; and Mr. Fox was happy in being able to serve the near relative of a friend whom he highly valued.—It is not merely in their political opinions that the patron and *protegé* are thus widely at variance; far more still are they asunder if we consider their turn of mind. Affectation in style, in thought, or in language, was to no man more intolerable than to Mr. Fox: but Mr. Trotter does not utter a sentiment that is not distorted and unnatural, and he rejects every expression that is not forced and inflated in the highest degree. Suspicion, rancour, and hypocrisy, were the vices most opposite to Mr. Fox's nature: but wherever Mr. Trotter censures or throws out an insinuation against an individual, (which is almost always the case when he mentions any person,) his charges have no better foundation than bare unproved suspicion. Vast and immeasurable as is the distance between the secretary and the principal, and great as were the personal obligations of the former to the latter, we do not blame Mr. Trotter for dissenting from Mr. Fox on the several points in which they differ: we are too steady friends to liberty of thinking and acting to deny to him such a right: but we are indignant at seeing insidious attacks made on the fame of Mr. Fox, and his consideration with the present age and posterity undermined, by a man who professes to be his admirer even to idolatry.

We are now in that portion of the volume, the concluding part, which exhibits the great British orator and statesman in his last illness. Here the picture is moving, is sublime. We behold patient magnanimous suffering, which does not impair sweetness of temper or kindness of nature: the sufferer is anxious only for the comforts of those around him, and grateful for attentions as if they had been deeds of charity: relatives shew affection and sensibility worthy of the great object of them: the private secretary admirably discharges his duty; and the piece is grand and awful. How painful is it to be obliged to add that even here Mr. Trotter is disingenuous! Had he only made himself a more prominent figure in this noble picture than was quite correct, he might have been forgiven: but what excuse can be framed for him, for suppressing nearly all mention of Mr. Hawkins, who had been an eminent surgeon, but who had for many years left off practice, and who now, from long attachment and friendship for Mr. Fox, not only attended him during his illness, but lived in the house with him during the last two months of his life?—Here it is, also, with the pathetic relations of these last scenes of our illustrious statesman, that his private secretary has chosen to blend those dark and horrid tales, which so deeply wound elevated characters, and which greatly tend not only to diminish his patron's consideration with the present age and with posterity, but to withdraw from the cause of liberty itself one of its main supports. The passages are too long to be quoted: but Mr. T. would have his readers believe that Mr. Fox's colleagues and political friends were very unfeeling towards him, that they first sacrificed his life to their political views by harrassing him with business, that they then neglected him during his illness, and that they latterly avoided consulting him from a dread of his superior understanding. Yet it appears from Mr. Trotter's own account that Lord Grey saw Mr. Fox at this melancholy period; and another of Mr. Fox's colleagues, a rising statesman, then in the House of Commons, but now a principal ornament of the other House, (who, it is known, highly valued our great orator, and who cherishes his principles and enlightened views,) is understood to have been very assiduous in his attentions to the illustrious deceased in his last illness, although no visit from him is recorded by the faithful secretary. It is not very credible that these two distinguished persons did not, as long as it was proper, take Mr. Fox's opinion on public affairs. Nor is it credible that Mr. Fox, on his dying-bed, should wish to have it stated to the world that he was not on good terms with so active and able a colleague in the public cause as Mr. Sheridan had proved himself to be, in the most discouraging times; who, when Mr. Fox stood up for liberty, as it were against the world, was ever found by his side, second only to himself in energies, but his equal in courage and boldness. Was Mr. Fox the man to forget such services? In the House of Commons, some time after Mr. Fox's death, Mr. Sheridan mentioned an act of friendship in his behalf that was attempted by his lamented friend, which shewed that Mr. Fox remembered well those services, and proves that the secretary put a wrong construction on what he saw, or imagined that he saw.—Why, moreover, is Lord Erskine mentioned only in order to be represented in a ludicrous light?—a man who, by matchless skill and ability in his profession, made justice be heard at a moment of extreme danger, when every one feared that she would not be able to stand her ground against the united influence of clamour and power; and who, by securing to her that single triumph, laid the age under high obligations to him, and intitled himself to rank with the first benefactors to our admirable constitution. Why are these the characters which are to be degraded, or rendered odious, in a work which professes to erect a monument to the memory of Mr. Fox? For these accusations, what foundations is there, except in the suspicions of Mr. Trotter? How was he to know what passed between the sworn counsellors of the King? While he was present, such matters could not be introduced. Again; it could only be a man who did not know the value of character, that would make a serious charge against Dr. Parr, an ecclesiastic, and a warm and attached friend to Mr. Fox, for his observation on Mr. Fox's religious opinions, although the accuser confesses that he never read that observation.

If it still be possible that any persons can assign the least weight to the accusations which we have been noticing, let them consider well the charge that is brought against Mr. Fox's physicians and relatives* as having administered 'the most powerful medicine, which science and experience sanctioned as most efficacious in desperate cases;' and which, according to Mr. Trotter's account, Mr. Fox did not survive two days. Let them reflect how decidedly this charge has been refuted; how gravely it involved the professional men and the family; with how much of detail it is stated; how many circumstances connected with it are mentioned; the delay in administering it; the displeasure which that delay occasioned; the dreadful consequence ascribed to 'the fatal' draught; and the benefits to the world which it precluded. It must surprize any man who reads the *pathetic* pages of Mr. Trotter, to which we refer, and his sublime *vision* in the late Duchess of Devonshire's dressing-room, to be told that all this is indeed "the baseless fabric of a vision;" which must leave, as "a wreck behind," the discretion, the candour, and the accuracy of the relater. We happen to *know, precisely*, that the contents of Mr. Trotter's *fatal* bottles were such as he, or we, or any man, might take not only with impunity but with high relish, at any hour. Did Mr. Trotter ever taste *Egg-wine*, well sweetened, and heightened with *Cinnamon*; and did he conceive that he had imbibed a *fatal* draught? If he did, his moderation in the use of it must have indeed yielded to its temptations!

Whatever this author may pretend, it results from all that we have said that the scope and drift of his work are in every view hostile to the memory of Mr. Fox. If this account of him were to be credited, he was a man without real friends; he wanted this solace and ornament when living; and he could not look to this protection for his principles and his memory when he should be no more. This we admit is most incredible, but it is the fact according to Mr. Trotter. What is this, then, but to say that Mr. Fox's political consideration would die with him, that the vast space which he had filled in public estimation was become a blank, and that all memory of him would shortly perish? The efforts of Mr. Trotter are well directed to realize this prophecy. The wise and good live as it were again, and their influence is felt and their consideration is acknowleged in the worthy deeds of a host of patriotic friends and followers: but Mr. Trotter denies that Mr. Fox left behind him any such friends and followers. To this new life, he then can make no claim. The close and permanent union of surviving friends and faithful adherents protects the common cause, enhances the consideration of themselves, and reflects glory on the departed leader: but Mr. Trotter envies this glory to his patron; and he has omitted nothing within his power to discredit the whole band, to sow jealousies among them, and to disunite and disperse them. A friend of his great patron is rarely mentioned in the *Memoirs*, except in order to render him odious, or in some manner to disparage him. The illustrious chief himself is by no means spared; abundance of vague praise is indeed heaped on him, but the great acts of his political life are branded; from the administration, which was one of the last of them, the prophetic secretary never augured any good; he foresaw as inevitable the fall of Mr. Fox's successors, and he seems to think that it was merited. "*Call you this backing your friends?*" Mr. Trotter may call it being 'uncontrolled by party.' It certainly is being uncontrolled by one party, but it is being very serviceable to another party; if the service be voluntary, it will only entitle to a higher reward; and we suppose that, being 'uncontrolled by party,' the ci-devant secretary will, if the reward be offered to him, shew himself to be wholly independent of party by accepting it.

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* See the letters of Sir Henry Halford, Dr. Moseley, and Mr. Tegart, in the news-papers.

We must not only, then, dispute the propriety of the title of this work, but must as positively controvert its professed design, which is declared to be that of raising a monument to the memory of Mr. Fox. The directly opposite is its obvious indisputable tendency. It takes away the materials for the erection of such a monument, — it leaves no inscription with which to grace the tablet. Had Mr. Trotter been employed for the express purpose of preventing a monument from being raised, we do not see how, with his confined reach of faculties, he could have fulfilled his commission more effectually than he has done it. The disguise of a friend has served him well; had he appeared in the character of an open enemy, his attack would only have excited a smile. The style of the present injury, therefore, far more offends than the injury itself: it is not like the attack of one noble animal on another, which if fierce is fair and open: but it is like the insidious bite of an insect, which has been warmed into life and animation by the kindness of those whom it wounds. Happily, the mischief which in the present instance was intended will not be realized, because the outrages are too flagrant to do injury to friends, or even to receive countenance from foes.

None except those who read this volume will be able to form any idea of the conceit of the author. Not only does he deem himself equal to his great patron, but on many occasions he assumes a superiority. The subject of Mr. Fox's history does not please him; it is not what the great author ought to have chosen, nor what the Secretary would have selected for him. We are, then, not to wonder that he very freely criticizes the time and manner of its being presented to the public. It would be difficult, indeed, to find a man who, as well from incongeniality of disposition as from want of capacity, was less qualified than his present biographer to appreciate Mr. Fox's character. The book itself is in design, in execution, and in style, a production unworthy of its high subject, and one for which Mr. Fox would have felt the strongest repugnance. Without a mind which can supply the matter of composition, the writer is an entire stranger to its rules, though he makes a great parade of classical acquirements and predilections; he has no idea of method nor of style: but that the phrase should be high sounding is all his care, no matter how mean or trivial be the idea. Yet this is the man who coolly sits down to transmit the true resemblance of Mr. Fox to posterity, who would have us believe that he shared in his elegant pursuits, and discussed nice literary points with him as an equal! That Mr. Fox kindly conversed with him on such topics, in the hope perhaps of forming or of chastening the taste of a young man for whom he had some regard, is indeed evident from the few letters written to him by this eminent person which are inserted in the Appendix; and which we recommend to the reader as some of the most interesting portions of the volume, in a literary point of view: but, taken altogether, the attention which the work has excited, or is calculated to excite, must be ascribed to the hardihood of its personal invectives and the singularity of its political treachery.

Some additional remarks from Mr. Trotter have appeared in the news-papers, on the subject of the 'fatal' medicine: but, though he abandons his charge, they are in no respect calculated to elevate or even to exonerate the writer.

Art. X. *State of Christianity in the Island of Otaheite,* and a Defence of the pure Precepts of the Gospel, against modern Antichrists, with Reasons for the ill Success which attends Christian Missionaries in their Attempts to convert the Heathens. By a Foreign Traveller. 8vo. pp. 175. Boards. Richardson, &c. 1811.

We have been informed that the author of this work is a Dane, and, as appears by the dedication, of the name of Jorgensen; who visited Otaheite in 1806, while mate of a vessel which was engaged in the southern whale-fishery. His ship having twice touched at the island, and having been detained there some months, he found repeated opportunities of observing the state of the mission, concerning which various discouraging facts are here related. That Mr. Jorgensen is not friendly to the scheme of proselytism, which has been attempted by the Christian colonists, is evident from the prevailing character of his remarks, of which we shall offer the following decisive specimen:

> ' It it but justice to observe, that there was one of the missionaries on the island, whom we must distinguish in a particular manner from the rest. Jeffrison was his name: a man truly pious, and who led a most exemplary life. But though he thus appeared to be a perfect Christian, yet, by some almost unaccountable means his ministry had become of no use. In a luxuriant climate, like that of Otaheite, where mirth, good nature, and beauty reign uncontroled, it is natural to suppose that strangers must be exposed to many temptations. The apostle, when he holds forth to the natives, and sees himself surrounded with a number of beautiful and naked females, soon feels the strongest emotions excited in his breast. And, if his eyes happen to meet those of his more artful hearer, she is sure of darting at him such a look, which I shall not here attempt to describe, at the same time smiling and shewing two rows of teeth whiter than the finest alabaster. The saint is thrown off his guard, and we see religion prostrate at the feet of female beauty. But now the malignant and triumphant Otaheitean shews her just contempt for the sanctified hypocrite, who a few minutes before expatiated on chastity, temperance, and virtue; and, so far from bestowing on him the favour he thinks so easily to obtain, he is repulsed with the most severe rebuke, for presuming to make a crime of following the irresistible dictates of nature, and which he now proves by his own actions cannot be resisted.
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> ' These were the temptations Mr. Jeffrison attempted to avoid, but in so doing he could neither preach nor teach. The hours of prayers only excepted, he was generally locked up by himself, and he was in the truest sense of the word mortifying the flesh. But this holy man seemed for all that not to be happy. He was oppressed with the weight of the spirit, and he continually uttered the most dismal and hollow groans; and he doubted whether his regular life and deportment would entitle him to eternal salvation. When I looked on the emaciated victim, I could not help feeling the deepest sentiments of

compassion for a fellow creature. He was never seen smiling, nor to enjoy a moment's happiness, and to us it appeared as if religion was to him the most terrible scourge. He had the appearance of a ghost: his skin was tinged with a yellow and deadly hue, like a man who has the jaundice; and his looks were dejected and gloomy. The reader may form a more correct idea of this unhappy man than possibly I can give him, if ever he has passed Bedlam, in London, and observed the two famous figures which are to be seen there: the one representing a man who is raving mad, and the other, one who is melancholy mad. The former has the full resemblance to the missionary who went crazy, on account of Oreepiah's wife, and the latter is the exact likeness of Mr. Jeffrison.

'Perhaps Mr. Jeffrison's austere looks and manners have done more to deter the natives from Christianity than the irregular life of the other missionaries. The Otaheiteans reluctantly embrace the religion of a God whom they are taught deals out eternal damnation and everlasting punishment with an unfeeling and an unmerciful hand. "No! no!" say they, "Let us keep the God we have got; it is of no use to "change a better for a worse." However, to shew their strange notions of our religion, I shall relate one or two facts, which came within my own knowledge during my stay on the island.

'It must be observed, that the natives of Otaheite, as well as all other heathens among whom I have been, believe that Christ is our chief God, and that the Creator is subordinate to him. The King, though he professed to have a great reverence for our Saviour, yet refused to part with his Otaheitean God, so that he might have two strings to his bow. But he discerned fast enough, that the Christians were far superior to his own subjects in valor and discipline, which he ascribed principally to the confidence we placed in our fire arms. He imagined that Christ had invented them, and instructed us in the use of them, wherefore the natives gave him the title of *God of Fire-arms* and *Deadly Weapons*. The King, in order to make his subjects believe that he was more particularly in favor with the God who appeared the stronger of the two, gravely told all his chiefs and the surrounding multitude, one morning, that he dreamt in the night that Jesus Christ and the Otaheitean deity had been in his house, and presently began to quarrel. Christ immediately seized a large broomstick, and knocked the other down without mercy, and only for the interference of the King he would surely have been killed. The greater part of the people swallowed down this ingenious piece of nonsense, but the more enlightened chiefs smiled significantly at each other, and it was easy to observe that they understood the drift of the whole story, which tended to nothing but to make the people believe that he had secret communications with our formidable God.

'The reigning King's mother was married to Otoo, King of Ulitteah, and dependent on the Otaheitean monarch. He was a man of about six feet four inches in height, and certainly made a very awkward appearance among the more elegant inhabitants of Otaheite. He was excessively intemperate, and would drink brandy till he lost all his senses. When he came on board our ship to visit us the first time after our arrival in Matavia Bay, he put on a most hypocritical and sanctified face, crying, "Master Christ, very good, very fine "fellow; me love Christ like my own brother. Give me one glass "of brandy." His request was instantly complied with, and the oftener we filled his glass the more he pretended to love our Saviour, calling him the *blessed*, and many other such expressions, which he imagined pleased us greatly, at the same time cursing and damning his own native god without hesitation. But, after drinking nearly a pint of strong liquor, his Majesty became so noisy and so rude, that there was no bearing his insolence any longer: he seized on a whole leg of mutton which stood on the table, took it up in his hands, and began to gnaw it with his great and ugly teeth. On resenting his outrageous and beastly behaviour, in spoiling our dinner, he got into such a rage, that he insisted upon having one more glass of brandy, if not he would recant all he had said in favor of Christ. However, we thought proper to refuse his request, on which he began to roar with all his might, "Damn Christ! Christ very bad; Otaheite God "fine fellow." After which he jumped overboard, and swam on shore, uttering the most horrid imprecations against our supposed God, because he could get no more brandy from us.'

Many other particulars interspersed in the book are equally curious and instructive. It is justly and forcibly stated that, besides the occasional *lapses* of the missionaries themselves, the licentious conduct of the seamen of vessels which come to Otaheite materially contributes to excite, in the minds of the natives, doubts of the truth and efficacy of that religion, of which the inculcators and professors are unable to exemplify the doctrines by their practice. We think that this is an obstacle, among others, to the success of the missionaries, which will not easily be surmounted.

In general, however, too large a portion of Mr. Jorgensen's pages is taken up with controversial or philosophical declamation. He introduces an imaginary heathen, a South-sea freethinker, arguing against the doctrine of the missionaries with the management and ingenuity of a Gottingen student; and, no doubt, it is somewhat mortifying that, of all the ecclesiastics who have been sent into these islands, the only one who appears to have been of any practical utility should be the youth who apostatized from Christianity; and who, by his example at Tongataboo, taught to the natives not the religion but the horticulture of Europe. The mission of the Pennsylvanian Quakers, which instructed the Indians how to make cheese, is the proper model for diffusing useful knowlege among the uncivilized. The simpler arts of maintenance are to be introduced before schools can be instituted; and schools for reading and writing must have been habitually attended for at least seven years, before so abstruse a religion as the Christian can without profanation be explained.

Some loyal thoughts on sects and establishments prolong and terminate the volume.

Art. XI. *Gazetteer of England and Wales:* containing the Statistics. Agriculture, and Mineralogy, of the Counties; the History, Antiquities, Curiosities, Manufactures, Trade, Commerce, Fairs, Markets, Charitable and other Institutions, Population, and elective Franchises, of the Cities, Towns, and Boroughs; including a complete Index Villaris, with the Bearings and Distance of each Village and Mansion from the nearest Market Town. Illustrated by two large Maps, descriptive of the Roads, and Inland Navigation. By Thomas Potts. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

Compilations of this description class among the most useful publications, and become valuable in proportion to their extent and correctness. Absolute accuracy and complete fulness cannot be expected: but if, in point of comparison, a new work manifests greater diligence, and surpasses all its predecessors in the variety, range, multiplicity, and importance of its information, we are required to announce it to the public in terms of commendation. On this ground, Mr. Potts's Gazetteer of England and Wales is unquestionably intitled to a very favourable report; since it is, we believe, the most comprehensive and amusing work of the kind that has hitherto appeared among us. We cannot pronounce it to be unalloyed by omissions and errors; for even the cursory examination which we have given it has discovered to us some defects: but it would seem ill-natured to carp at trifles when we cast our eyes on such a vast mass of information. Mr. Potts's diligence and judgment are conspicuous, and he has not neglected in his advertisement to recount the sources from which he derived his materials; while at the same time he thus explains the mode of arrangement which he has adopted:

'1. (After the name of the place), the Hundred, County, &c.

'2. Distance from London; or Villages, Seats, &c. from the nearest market town.

'3. Bearings from London, or nearest town, &c.

'4. Population.

'5. Elective Franchises.

'6. Public Buildings, &c.

'7. Trade, Commerce, Manufactures.

'8. History, Antiquities, &c.

'The Hundred, Wapentake, Ward, Lathe, Soke, Rape, or other jurisdiction, were furnished by their Poor-returns, being copied from the endorsement.

'The Distance from London: by the admeasurements allowed by the General Post-Office.

'The Bearings; by Faden's large map.

'The Population; by the abstract of the population act.

'The Elective Franchises; by Willis's Notitia Parliamentaria, and Oldfield's History of Boroughs.

'The Public Buildings, Situation, Corporation, Civil Jurisdiction, &c. by the History of the County.

'The Trade, Commerce, and Manufactures; by M'Pherson's Commercial Gazetteer: — and

'The History, Antiquities, Curiosities, Fairs and Markets, from the County-Histories, Beauties of England, and Luckombe's Gazetteer.'

A number of curious statistical and other particulars are given in the details of counties, cities, towns, &c.; and in the Introduction, Mr. Potts has exhibited a short sketch of the history of the island, with a list of the Roman names of the districts and chief towns in England and Wales, a catalogue of our monarchs from the period of the Saxon Heptarchy, the modern division of England and Wales, the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction, (with the revenues of the archbishops and bishops,) and a description of the climate and face of the country: concluding with the following enumeration, under the heads of *Population*, *Agriculture*, *Manufactures*, &c.

The *Population* is 9,168,000, of which nearly 5,000,000 are females.

'*Agriculture.*—England contains 32,150,000 square statute acres; of these about 10,500,000 are under cultivation for tillage; about 3,000,000 remaining annually as fallow, or in a course of turnips; about 3,500,000 are under barley and oats; 2,000,000 under peas, buck-wheat, vetches, &c.; and the remaining 2,000,000 under wheat: about 14,200,000 acres are under pasturage, and 3,000,000 more are supposed capable of being advantageously brought under cultivation. The system of agriculture pursued on the light lands of Norfolk, and the heavy lands of Suffolk, Kent, and other counties, is deservedly admired and held up to the imitation of the rest of Europe. The breed of domestic animals, whether for the race, the harness, the yoke, or the pail, are superior to any other on the globe; and the fleeces of our sheep vie with the famed Merino, both in fineness and weight.

'*Manufactures*—have been recently estimated at the annual value of 63,600,000l. and supposed to employ 1,585,000 persons: of these, the woollen manufacture is supposed to yield 15,000,000l.; leather 10,000,000l.; iron, tin, and lead, 10,000,000l.; and cotton 9,000,000l. In this last article, since the introduction of Arkwright's machinery, we excel the best productions of the East; and at the same time, by the reduction of the manual labour, we are enabled to send our goods to market, of superior quality, and at a less price than any other nation in the world. The other chief manufactures, which yield from 1 to 4,000,000l. may be thus arranged according to their importance; steel, plated goods, &c. copper and brass, silk, potteries, linen and flax, hemp and cordage, glass, and paper. The last of these articles is now manufactured by a beautiful piece of machinery quite novel in its kind, and is the property of Messrs. Fourdrinier, who have brought it to its present perfection at an expence of nearly 40,000l.

'*Commerce*—is at present almost incredible, and in spite of every obstacle, may be said to extend over the whole globe. In the year 1797, the exports amounted to 28,917,000l.; and the imports to 21,013,000l.; supposed to produce clear profits on foreign trade to the amount of 10,000,000l. The number of merchant vessels has been computed at 16,000, and employ 140,000 men and boys in their navigation.

'*Annual Income.*—In the year 1799, Mr. Pitt estimated the annual income at 102,000,000l.; and including the money, of which the estimate is by no means certain, the whole capital of Great Britain may perhaps be calculated at more than one thousand two hundred millions!

'*Army.*—During the late war, the army was supposed to exceed 170,000, including 30,000 fencibles, and 78,000 militia; and besides these, no less than 60,000 volunteers. The supplies granted for payment of the army, and other incidental expences, amount in this present year to 13,953,000l.

'*Navy.*—In the year 1808, the list of the royal navy was as follows:—

'Ships in Ordinary	-	176
in Commission	-	627
building	-	66
Total	-	869

The number of seamen required to navigate this immense Fleet, amounts nearly to 140,000 men! a number unprecedented in history, but supported at the vast expence of 19,238,000l.

'*Charitable Donations.*—These annually amount to the sum of 258,710l.; and the

'*Poor Rates*—to upwards of three millions and a half.'

Many of these Returns might surely have been brought down to a later period.

If any other specimen of Mr. Potts's diligence in making statistical collections were necessary, the article appropriated to the description of our great and overgrown metropolis would furnish ample evidence on this head. We shall transcribe only a small part of his account of the port of London, and of the consumption of this great city in the article of provisions:

'The port of London; the present annual value of the exports and imports of London may be stated at sixty millions and an half sterling, and the annual amount of the customs at more that six millions. These exports and imports employ about 3,500 ships, British and foreign; while the cargoes that annually enter the port are not less than 13,400. On an average there are 1,100 ships in the river; together with 3,419 barges and other small craft employed in lading and unlading them; 2,288 barges and other small craft engaged in the inland trade; and 3,000 wherries or small boats for passengers. And to this active scene are to be added about 8,000 watermen actually employed in navigating the wherries and craft; 4,000 labourers lading and unlading ships; and 1,200 revenue officers constantly doing duty on the river, besides the crews of the several vessels. This scene occupies a space of six miles on the Thames, from two miles above to four miles below London Bridge; but the part that is most devoted to commerce lies between London Bridge and Blackwall.'—

'The numbers of bullocks, sheep, lambs, calves, hogs, and sucking pigs, purchased at the Smithfield markets, and annually consumed in the metropolis, are in the following proportion: bullocks 110,000, sheep and lambs 776,000, calves 210,000, hogs 210,000, sucking pigs 60,000. Markets for hay, Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday. The markets for the sale of provisions are numerous, and amply supplied with every sort, generally of the most excellent kind: the bread is very fine and sound. Besides animal food and bread, there are no less than 6,980,000 gallons of milk [*and water*] annually consumed here: of vegetables and fruit, there are 10,000 acres of ground near the metropolis, cultivated wholly for vegetables, and about 4000 acres of fruit. Of wheat, coals, ale, and porter, &c. the annual consumption is, of wheat, 700,000 quarters; of coals 600,000 chaldrons; of ale and porter 1,113,500 barrels; of spirits and compounds 11,146,782 gallons; of wine 32,500 tons; of butter 16,600,000 pounds; and of cheese 21,100,000 pounds. Fish and poultry are excessively dear, and the quantities consumed are comparatively small.'

We may ask Mr. Potts why some notice was not taken of *Cawsand Bay*, as well as of *Hamoaze*, *Torbay*, and *Chale Bay*? why *Odiham* is said to be situated on the high road from London to Basingstoke? why *Muddyford*, near Christchurch, is not described as a watering-place growing into some celebrity? why *St. Anne's Hill* is not mentioned as the residence of Fox, when *Holmwood* is marked as that of Pitt? why *Chiswick House*, that well-known *bijou* of architecture, is not introduced, &c. &c.

It would give us pleasure to hear that Mr. Potts was preparing a Gazetteer of Scotland, Ireland, and the British Isles, as a fit companion for the work before us. The maps affixed to this volume, however, are too small to be of any practical use. Mr. Potts would have effected a valuable object, if he had furnished an atlas of maps, allotting one of a proper size to each county.

Art. XII. *Scripture-Characters:* in a Series of Practical Sermons, preached at St. James's Church, Bath, by the Rev. Richard Warner, Curate of that Parish. 12mo. 2 vols. 10s. Boards. Wilkie and Robinson.

The object of Mr. Warner, in these discourses, cannot be better conveyed to our readers than by transcribing the short preface which introduces them:

'Though I am aware that several writers have preceded me in the line of *Scriptural Biography*, yet, I know not that any one has anticipated the plan of the following Sermons: since they are more of a *practical* than *doctrinal* nature; and intended to "come home to "men's business and bosoms," by a developement of religious and moral *duties*, rather than to exercise their fancy by disquisitions on speculative points of faith. Neither do they affect to give such a complete analysis of Scripture-Characters as my predecessors have done. They are *sketches*, not *portraits;* attempting a strong likeness of one or two prominent features in each subject, and touching the others only in a slight and hasty manner.

'The motives which induced me to choose such subjects were twofold: I imagined, first, that I should be able to clothe several points of moral and religious instruction in a more alluring dress than common, by exhibiting them as conclusions drawn from the characters and conduct of "men like ourselves;" and secondly, that such a plan would afford me a favourable opportunity of looking more narrowly into the human heart, and unfolding the motives of right and wrong action, more clearly and effectually than any other which I could adopt: whether my notion were correct, and how I have succeeded in executing it, must be left to the judgment of the public to determine.'

It is a defect in this publication, that it contains no index nor table of contents, to exhibit at one view the several scripture-characters which constitute the basis of Mr. Warner's moral reflections; we shall therefore give a list of them. In the 1st Volume, containing 15 sermons, observations are offered on the following characters,— Adam,— Noah,— Abraham,— Joseph, — Job, — Moses, — Balaam, — David, — John the Baptist, — Peter, — Judas, — Pontius Pilate, — Saul the Jewish zealot, — and Paul the Christian apostle; and in the 2d volume, which furnishes 16 sermons, we are presented with developements of the characters of Cain and Abel, — Jacob, — Joshua, — Ruth, — Gehazi, — and Tobit. A wide range for moral observation is here presented to the preacher, who has endeavoured to extract much and varied instruction from these portions of sacred biography: but we cannot subscribe to all his notions.

In the first place, we cannot admit that the difference in the characters of Cain and Abel arose from or was influenced by

their

their respective occupations. Agriculture or tillage is no more apt to harden or 'roughen the mind, or blunt the feelings,' than sheep-tending, or the pastoral life. The labours of the field, indeed, are generally represented as favourable to virtue; and it cannot be supposed that Cain acquired any portion of his irritable or peevish temper from the operations of husbandry. The ploughman is as likely to be mild as the shepherd.

If Mr. Warner be in an error in attempting to account for the murderous bias given to the mind of Cain, he seems to deviate still farther from the truth, in his gloss on the odious betrayer of innocence more spotless than that of Abel; we mean Judas Iscariot. Mr. W. endeavours to prove that Judas had no design against the life of his divine master in his act of perfidy: but that, influenced by a conviction of our Saviour's Messiahship, and that the prophecy of the seventy weeks was about to be fulfilled in the display of his temporal dominion, he had recourse to the expedient of betraying Christ to his enemies, in order that thus he might be 'placed in a situation that should render it necessary for him to DECLARE HIMSELF; for Judas thought that Jesus being reduced to extremity, would be compelled to an exertion of his latent power, and to a manifestation of his real character.' This attempt to white-wash the black traitor of our Lord is far from being well supported. On this view of the case, Judas was guilty only of a mistake in judgement; and if we grant Mr. Warner's premises, the traitor meant not to hasten the death but the advancement of the kingdom of his master. If this, however, were his design, he needs not have taken the thirty pieces of silver; and if this had been his motive, his character would have been differently sketched by the Evangelists, who speak of his conduct in terms of the greatest detestation. We differ with the preacher in thinking that the workings which he assigns to Iscariot's mind, and the progress of his self-deception, 'however they may change the *nature* of his crime, subtract but little from its enormity.' Surely, by changing the offence of Judas from premeditated treachery for the purpose of hastening the death of his Lord, into a kind of self-deception respecting the nature of the Messiah's kingdom and the best means of forwarding its manifestation, the infamy of Judas's character would be greatly diminished. We need not, however, enlarge on this hypothesis, which is altogether baseless.

Perhaps the character of Jacob, however excellent on the whole, is treated with too much indulgence, when his conduct in *swindling* the blessing from his father Isaac is considered. As the whole account of the lying and fraudulent behaviour of Jacob towards his father, for the purpose of excluding Esau, who was gone to the fields to kill venison at his aged father's express desire, is selected for the first lesson in the second Sunday in Lent, we could have wished that the preacher had endeavoured to obviate the impression which this picture of human depravity might make on the people, by reprobating the villainy of the transaction, instead of striving to palliate it. The compilers of the liturgy, in their selection of the lessons for the first and second Sundays in Lent, never meant to invite the clergy to defend the enormities there exhibited, but to shew the extreme wickedness of human nature when unsanctified by grace.

Mr. Warner, we trust, will excuse us if we intimate also our inability to coincide with him in the high praise which he bestows on the Apocrypha. The books which compose it, he admits, have no title to be considered as inspired writings, yet he contends 'that they contain *true histories*, and are *only inferior* to the sacred writings.' The book of Tobit carries with it, in his estimation, 'the strongest proofs of authenticity,' and he has therefore made it the subject of six sermons: but, in our judgment, resting the whole on internal evidence, it is a spurious book, and, with the story of Susannah, Bell and the Dragon, &c. is justly excluded from the Sacred Canon. The Apocrypha may contain scattered fragments of divine wisdom, as the spurious gospels are supposed to record some of the genuine sayings of Christ: but, as we have authentic scriptures, it is not prudent to bring into prominent notice such writings as are of doubtful authority. We question whether Tobit ought to be classed with scripture-characters. After his story, the Recognitions of Clement, or any other antient trash, may become the subject of sermons.

Hitherto, we have been rather censuring than flattering this respectable preacher: but let him not suppose that we shall take our final leave of him with a surly growl of disapprobation. "The web of our critique is of a mingled yarn;" and having now worked up the rough-spun material, we shall proceed to use thread of a softer and more pleasing texture. We shall do Mr. Warner the justice to say, that the sermons which compose these two volumes are very far from being dull or monotonous: that the reflections are not only practical, but ingenious, and indicate a mind of no ordinary compass: that it is the merit of the preacher that, while he strives to render antient biography beneficial to the moderns, he does not view the antients through the medium of fashionable prejudices and opinions: that he boldly delivers his sentiments in forcible language; and that his sermons, being short, are well adapted to the use of families. Though he does not adopt Rousseau's idle notions of the savage state, Mr. W. is no friend to excessive civilization, or to a highly sophisticated state of society. The sermon on the character of Ruth is thus introduced:

‘ It is an error common to men of all ages, and all countries, to consider the existing manners of their own particular nation as the standard of propriety; and to regard those of other times and other people, when they differ from their own, either with contempt or disgust. Many causes co-operate to produce this effect; the prejudices of education, the force of habit, the familiarity produced by custom, and the flattery of self-love, which always attributes exclusive excellence to the opinions entertained, and the manners adopted, by ourselves.

‘ This observation applies to people who have arrived at a high state of civilization, as well as to those who are not yet emerged from barbarism: and hence it happens, that among the refined communities of the present day, (and ours may be included in the number,) the practices and sentiments of the earlier and more simple ages of the world, are more apt to excite ridicule than respect, to be regarded as objects of avoidance rather than of imitation. It would be an easy matter to shew that such an estimate is very incorrect; and that if truth and nature be the foundations of propriety, the manners of those who have lived in less cultivated periods and countries than our own, may boast a superiority in this respect over ourselves, that ought to mortify, if it did not convince us. I do not mean however to compare ancient and modern manners on the present occasion, but merely to apply my remarks to those representations of them which are recorded in the Bible; in order to vindicate them from the charges too often levelled against them, of barbarism and indelicacy. In fact, could we but divest ourselves of prejudice, and contemplate these pictures of primitive life through the steady medium of reason, we should, perhaps, not only find much to admire in them, but discover cause to regret that we have deviated so widely as we have done, from that enviable simplicity, by which they are characterized; we should be content to allow that the progress of refinement involves in it too often the diminution of happiness; and that high improvements in arts and science, by introducing a false standard of taste, and a spurious delicacy of sentiment, are apt to distort rather than perfect the judgment, and to disqualify men from appreciating fairly the claims which the manners and customs of early ages have of being founded in propriety and truth.

‘ Affectation is the very opposite to beauty; and as this deformity necessarily grows out of extreme refinement, we have every reason to suspect that the opinion formed by modern times with respect to the barbarism and indelicacy of the manners described in the Bible histories, is attributable to a perversion of sentiment, rather than to the dictates of right reason; that the defects are not in *them*, but in *ourselves*. Of these ancient manners the Book of Ruth exhibits a most pleasing picture; and we may truly assert, that he who can attentively read its descriptions, and not feel their conformity to the unsophisticated suggestions of nature, though he may boast a nominal refinement, ought, notwithstanding, to be considered as entirely deficient in pure sentiment and unperverted taste.'

The conclusion of this discourse, on the *proper qualities* of the *female* character, with a special reference to the important relation of marriage, contains a lecture for the ladies which we recommend to their serious perusal. They may read it first in our pages, and afterward in the volumes before us.

'The prominent features in the character of Ruth were *modesty*, *tenderness*, and *piety*; virtues, which, as she exemplified them most fully in her widowhood, we may conclude equally adorned her in the marriage state; and as such may fairly be recommended, under the sanction of her example, to those of her sex who have entered into this sacred connection. A few previous observations, however, applying to females in general, may perhaps be introduced with propriety and utility.

'The goodness of God in the constitution of the natural world is equally conspicuous and admirable. Though its various parts are almost infinite in number, and endlessly diversified in their operations, yet are they all adapted to each other with such exquisite skill, as to form together a perfect and harmonious whole. The same benevolent provision for order and happiness is visible in the rational creation. When God had formed the external world, and furnished it with the lower orders of life, he created man after his own image, and made him lord of the wide and goodly inheritance. Still, however, his purpose was not completed. He knew that it was not good for man to be alone; he had implanted sympathies and affections in his bosom, which demanded the society of a reasonable creature like himself, with whom he might reciprocate kindness, and enjoy the tender intercourse of sentiment and love. He therefore made him an help meet for him; a being exactly adapted to his wants and wishes; whose delicacy of form precluded the idea of contest or rivalship in the dominion with which man was invested; and whose tenderness of nature was every way calculated to mingle with the sterner features of his character, to attract his love, engage his protection, and thus ensure the same harmony and beauty in the moral creation, as were visible in the material one. Man, it is true, in the words of the incomparable Milton,

> " Understood, in the prime end
> " Of nature, Her the inferior, in the mind
> " And inward faculties, which most excel;
> " In outward also, Her resembling less
> " His image, who made both, and less expressing
> " The character of that dominion given
> " O'er other creatures:"

But he was still sensible of an influence that she exerted over him, more powerful than any which greater strength of form or superiority of understanding, could have produced; in the attractive delicacy of her mind, in the tenderness of her heart, in the modesty of her deportment, and the sanctity of her manners. When man transgressed, indeed, a sad falling off took place in both their characters; but though their respective excellencies were obscured and diminished by the fatal event, yet the qualities proper to each sex continued to be the same; the peculiar attributes of woman were as distinct as before, and the duties by which she was to recommend herself to her Maker, and the attractions by which she was to engage the esteem, respect, and attachment of man, remained unaltered. The gentle virtues were still her proper characteristics: her modesty was to allure, and her tenderness to confirm, the love of the sterner and the rougher sex; whilst piety, embodied in her fair form, and recommended by her captivating example, was to present itself with irresistible fascination to the notice of man, and be urged upon his understanding through the medium of his heart. Such originally were, and such eternally will be, the appropriate qualities of woman; and she who neglects, despises, or throws them aside; who assumes opposite dispositions, and deviates into other paths; will mar the end of her creation, and, while she displeases her Maker, will repel, disgust, and alienate the love of man. Away then with those idle systems, which would confound the duties of the sexes; that would take woman from her proper sphere, and lift her into situations for which she was not intended. Her department in social life is intimated by nature in the delicacy of her form, and defined by God in his revealed word; and for her to attempt to counteract these manifest designations, is to rebel against both, to disorder and unhinge the natural as well as moral harmony of the world. It was this just and reasonable view of the nature and duties of the different sexes, that suggested to our immortal poet that beautiful personal and mental picture of the human race, in their primeval state, which he has given us in the following lines.

"In their looks divine
"The image of their glorious Maker shone,
"Truth, wisdom, sanctitude severe and pure,
"(Severe, but in true filial wisdom placed,)
"Whence true authority in men; though both
"Not equal, as their sex not equal seem'd;
"For contemplation he, and valour form'd;
"For softness she, and sweet attractive grace:
"He for God only, she for God in him."

'But, if the qualities which I have enumerated be generally requisite in the character of the female, they are more especially so, when she enters into the holy connection of wedlock. My brothers and sisters! it is of immense importance to the happiness of the rational world, that the appropriate duties of the husband and the wife be rigidly and conscientiously fulfilled; for, as their performance ensures the purest and most solid bliss that this world of sorrow can afford, "the only happiness of Paradise that has survived the fall;" so their neglect introduces into the cup of life a bitter poisonous drop, of the most deadly taste, and lasting influence. Indisputable is the truth, that each is bound to co-operate with the other, in drawing tight that bond of union which has connected them together for life; that they are mutually obliged to increase, by every means in their power, the stock of conjugal felicity. But as domestic life is more especially the proper province of the wife; as she is constituted by nature, and commanded by God, to exercise those gentler virtues which have a peculiar reference to *home*, and a direct tendency to render it the scene of happiness and peace; so her obligation to manifest in her conduct the feminine graces of *modesty*, *tenderness*, and *piety*, presses upon her with peculiar force.

Entirely and exclusively the precious possession of her husband, her thoughts must not wander abroad for other conquests, or foreign admiration. Ill does it become her who has solemnly pledged herself to *one*, to seek, by the arts of coquetry or levity, to attract or captivate the many; to court the public gaze, to be the theme of general conversation, or the object of particular remark. The sacrifice of a matron's modesty may indeed purchase the admiration of the coxcomb, or the flattery of the villain; but transient will be her triumph, and worthless her reward, if for this she have given up the favour of her Maker, and the esteem and affection of her husband. Equally incumbent is it upon her to cherish in her bosom, and to exercise in her behaviour, the grace of *tenderness*; a sweet solicitude to soothe the cares, and tranquillize the perturbations, of the companion of her bosom; and to perform those thousand endearing offices to her infant offspring, which maternal love alone can properly fulfil. Oh! who can speak the value of this female quality in domestic life? It is the precious cement of its happiness; the support of all its charities: whose absence no external circumstance can recompence or supply. Fashion, splendour, and pleasure, may load the married fair one with all they can bestow; but their accumulated gifts will leave a gloomy vacuity in her heart, if her chief solace, refuge, and delight be not in the tranquil joys and tender offices of home. Finally, my sisters, the quality of *piety* must crown and consummate the character of the exemplary wife. It is essential indeed in every human being, but in the domestic circle (if we measure its necessity by its influence) it is more especially incumbent upon her, whose presence is most frequent and conspicuous there. Who can tell the power of a wife's religious example, in converting an unbelieving, reclaiming a profligate, or fixing an inconstant husband? It seems hardly possible to imagine, that vice should not surrender itself to virtue, when clothed in the attractive form of female loveliness, and seconded by modesty, tenderness, and affection; but should its brutal insensibility be still deaf to the voice of the charmer; she has yet a cause upon her hands of unspeakable importance, which imperiously demands the exercise of female piety — the cause of her children. Nature and custom have entrusted to her the charge of their early education; and if the principles of religion be not instilled into their tender minds by her care, and confirmed by her example, they will grow up without God in the world; they will pass through life without the blessing of Providence; and when they are translated from it, will have to attribute their everlasting ruin (O horrid thought!) to their mother. There is a religion of the HOME, my fair friends, as well as a public worship of God; a religion over which the wife must preside; whose altar she must serve; whose sacrifices

fices she must superintend; and as the most fatal consequences will follow her omission of it, so the sorest retribution will punish its neglect.'

By these specimens, let the reader judge of Mr. Warner's style of preaching. The decision cannot fail to be in his favor.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1811.

EDUCATION.

Art. 13. *A familiar Introduction to the Arts and Sciences,* for the Use of Schools and Young Persons: containing a general Explication of the fundamental Principles and Facts of the Sciences, divided into Lessons, with Questions subjoined to each, for the Examination of Pupils. By the Rev. J. Joyce. 12mo. pp. 332. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

The author of this work is advantageously known for his judicious method of providing instruction for young persons. He has exhibited the same turn of mind in the present performance, and we doubt not that he will, in like manner, obtain the public favour. The plan is very comprehensive, especially when compared with the size of the volume: since in the compass of between 3 and 400 small pages, we have the principles of 30 different arts and sciences, beginning with grammar, logic, and rhetoric, proceeding to the different departments of historical knowlege, then going through the various branches of mathematics and natural philosophy, and ending with natural history.

The method adopted is to lay down the principles of the different sciences in a series of short propositions, which are to be committed to memory, and are divided into lessons of appropriate length. To each lesson is affixed a string of questions, referring to the different propositions, so as to facilitate the labour both of the instructor and the pupil. In order to afford our readers an opportunity of judging of Mr. Joyce's merit on subjects of different descriptions, we select a specimen from the section on logic, and another from that on chemistry:

'1. When two ideas are compared together, they either *concur*, as snow and whiteness: or they *coincide*, as God and Creator: or they do not concur, as vice and usefulness; or they do not coincide, as man and brute.

'2. When the concurrence or coincidence of ideas, or the want of it, is perceived by the intervention of a third idea, this is called *judgment*.

'3. The sources of judgment are consciousness, sense, intuition, and testimony.

'4. *Consciousness* is the mind's perception of its own existence, faculties, and operations.

'5. The senses teach us the existence, properties, and powers of external objects: and the foundations of natural knowledge.

'6. *Intuition* is the instant perception of the relation between two ideas; as, "the whole is greater than any of its parts, and equal to all its parts."

'7. *Testimony* is the criterion of facts, which do not fall immediately under our own observation.

'ILLUSTRATION. The proper province of testimony is the proof of facts, which, having happened in past times, or in distant places, have not fallen under the cognizance of the senses. Testimony must be true when the relater is not himself deceived, and does not intend to impose on others.'—

'1. What are the results of the comparison of ideas?
'2. What is meant by judgment?
'3. What are the sources of judgment?
'4. How is consciousness defined?
'5. What do the senses teach?
'6. What is intuition?
'7. What is meant by testimony?
'Give the illustration.'—

'1. CHEMISTRY is the science which investigates the effects of the action of bodies upon each other, to determine their constituent principles, and to form new compounds.

'ILLUSTRATION. The utility of chemistry is shewn by its connection with the arts of life: the arts of dyeing, bleaching, tanning, glass-making, and the working of all kinds of metals are purely chemical. In agriculture it explains the phenomena of the growth and nourishment of vegetables, and the nature and action of manures. In medicine its assistance is peculiarly valuable, nor is it of small importance in the culinary arts. There is scarcely a single trade or manufacture, that does not depend, either immediately, or more remotely upon a knowledge of this science.

'2. That power which tends continually to bring substances together which are disunited, and which retains, with more or less energy, those which are already in a state of combination, is called elective attraction, or attraction of affinity.

'3. Affinity of aggregation is that which exists between two particles of the same nature.

'Examples. (1.) Two drops of water running together form an aggregate. Each drop is called an integrant part.

'(2.) An aggregate differs from a heap, because the integrant parts of the latter have no perceptible adhesion to each other, as a heap of corn. They both differ from a mixture, the constituent parts of which are of a different nature, as gun-powder.

'4. There are four kinds of aggregates, arising from the different degrees of force of this attraction, acting between the constituent principles of bodies; these are the hard, the soft, the fluid, and the aeriform aggregates.

'5. When the minute parts of one substance unite to those of another so intimately as to form a body, which has properties different from those of either of them, the union is called the attraction of composition. The new body is called a compound.

'Examples. Glass is a compound of sand and an alkaline salt. Sal Ammoniac, a compound of an acid and an alkali. So also is common salt.'—

'1. What is chemistry?
'How is the utility of this science shewn?
'2. What do you mean by elective attraction?
'3. What is meant by affinity of aggregation?
'Give the examples.
'4. How many kinds of aggregates are there?
'5. What is meant by the attraction of composition?
'Give the examples.'

The chief points of excellence in a work of this kind are the selection and correctness of the materials. With respect to the first, we think that the author has been very fortunate; and we have not observed many deficiencies in the latter; although, if we were to enter into a minute critique, we might find some subjects for animadversion. On the whole, we deem ourselves fully justified in recommending the volume to parents and instructors, as containing much useful matter in a cheap and convenient form.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 14. *The Triumphs of Religion;* a sacred Poem, in Four Parts. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1811.

What a promising subject! From the opening, however, we were not induced to add what a promising poem!

'Hail, blest Religion! whose celestial pow'r
Triumphant smiles at fate's malignant hour,
Thou only *real* good, that mortals know,
From whose rich source transcendant pleasures flow;
With thee pure Faith, and golden Hope are join'd,
And soft ey'd Charity, of angel mind;
Faith, who her Saviour's Cross embraces fast,
Bright Hope, with eye to happier regions cast,
Fair Charity, of meek, angelic face;
Divine love breathing to the human race.'

Here we are introduced to Faith, Hope, and Charity; and, as these ladies are very good company, the Muse undertakes to bring us together again, a page or two afterward:

'Hear my fond pray'r for once, indulgent muse!
With thy celestial beam my mind infuse;
Fill my wrapt soul with energy sublime,
Transport my views beyond this *rolling clime;*
Bring Faith, and Hope, and Charity along,
With their mild virtues let me grace my song;
High on Faith's tow'ring wing teach me to soar,
To sing those truths, which trembling I adore;
And all unletter'd, and unknown to fame,
To paint the glories of this mystic flame.'

In the few lines substituted for a preface, the author, addressing his book, says,

> ' Then let the Critics satirize and rail
> And all thy want of classic taste assail:'

but we beg to decline the challenge; for if we were to enumerate all the instances of want of taste in his poem, we must give this article a length which would be inconvenient to us. To prove, however, that we do not withhold our praise on slight grounds, we shall exhibit two or three detached couplets. Part of Joseph's speech to his brethren is thus *done into verse:*

> ' " Now Lord of Egypt 'twas God sent me here
> Against this famine for ye to prepare." '
>
> ' How sweet for Angels o'er your form to *watch*
> Inspire your dreams, and hover round your *couch*.'

The death of Bp. Latimer is thus represented:

> ' Trusting in God, and stedfast in his *faith*
> Th' illustrious martyr triumphs over *death*.'

The author's departed mother, speaking from heaven in the last part, attempts a description of her happy society with the Angels:

> ' Here, thro' the Heav'n of Heav'ns with them I *fly*
> With them my Maker's presence dare *enjoy*.'

Though in this poem *Religion* does not triumph in verse, she is very often apostrophised.

Art. 15. *The Battles of the Danube and Barrosa.* 8vo. pp. 87. Boards. Murray, &c. 1811.

What could induce a British muse to dip her wings in the blood which lately flowed so disastrously on the banks of the Danube, and to record battles which terminated so fatally for the House of Austria? It was in order to contrast the warfare of Frenchmen, when engaged against the powers on the continent, with their warfare when opposed to British troops. Addressing our Gallic foes, the poet says:

> ' Well may ye conquer foreign slaves,
> And hurl your myriads to their graves,
> Upon the Danube's shore;
> But when you meet the northern men,
> And freemen too,—'tis then, 'tis then
> Your conquest is no more!'

If, however, the object of the writer had been merely contrast, he might have shortened his stanzas on the battles of the Danube, and have enlarged on that of Barrosa: at present, the English reader will regard the former poem as much too long, and the latter as too short. Had brevity in the first instance been consulted, much tedious repetition would have been avoided; the frequent recurrence of the same rhimes would not have fatigued us; we should not have been incessantly stunned by the sound of the bugle, nor have read again and again of troops

'Array'd in gold, and blue and green,
And plumed helmets of silver sheen.'

Worse, however, than occasional repetitions, is the want of dignity which at times deforms the poem. The following couplet is too ludicrous for a death-song:

'Remote the battle gleam'd, and Death
Seem'd with his toils *quite out of breath*:'—

and this couplet could scarcely be admitted into a modern ballad;

'Has England ever shunn'd the day
When France with doubling tribes *for aye*'—

'One might have sworn,'—and ''twas worth the world to see,' are vulgarisms beneath the sublimity at which the poet aims.

The battles of the Danube are protracted through fifty-four long stanzas, occupying seventy pages, while the fight of Barrosa is dispatched in fourteen. We transcribe a short stanza at the conclusion of the first poem, because it is one of the best:

'But wherefore shou'd we tease the eye
That flows with Pity's tear?
And, wherefore, with another sigh
Torment the shudd'ring ear?
France, wallowing in her guilt, has hurl'd
Destruction o'er a trembling world,
And shaken ev'ry throne,
Save ONE, that still erect can stand,

Mothers, daughters—all must yield
To the bloodhounds of the field!
All must bend before the tide,
Save where Britain's sons preside;
All must bend, and bending, *be*
The victims of impiety!'

reat actions require a poet of true genius and grandeur of thought
ecord them.

. 16. *The Battle of Albuera:* a Poem. With an Epistle dedica-
ry to Lord Wellington. 8vo. 3s. Gale and Curtis. 1811.
s a battle-piece, this poem has considerable merit. We are
ed on the scene of action; and the author, by the assistance which
has avowedly derived from imitating Mr. Walter Scott's warlike
e, has detailed the operation of the contending armies in a manner
is calculated to gratify the warrior, and to inflame his ardour
n fighting for his country or in behalf of the oppressed. We
d not follow the poet over this bloody and well-contested field: but
shall select, as a specimen, this description of the attack of the
ish lancers, and their repulse by the British column under Major
eral Hoghton, who fell in the onset:

'Just as the heights were all but won,
Just as the foe began to run,
The Polish troops came marching on,
And fell upon our rear.
'Twas not with bayonet or blade
The desperate assault was made,
But with the barbed spear.
Fierce that assault; for chieftain ne'er,
To scenes of war how us'd soe'er—
Not Soult himself—had seen its peer:
For, though in wily ambush caught,
The British troops like lions fought;
At once in front and rear assail'd,
Their trusty bayonets never fail'd;
For little then our horemen' vail'd
Against this novel enemy:
Those pennons of the scarlet hue,
No sooner did their horses view,
Than plunging deep, and rearing high,
Affrighted from the field they flew:
Untractable as those wild steeds
Who roam at large their native meads,
Their mouths by iron bits uncurb'd,
Their peace by man yet undisturb'd.
And though their riders, staunch and true,
Did all the strength of man could do,
Their every effort was in vain
To bring them to the charge again.
'Why raise the French that victor shout?
Is theirs the conquest—ours the rout?

Does British valour yield?
No! though each man can show his wound,
Though one by one they fall around;
The gallant Buffs maintain their ground
Against th' unequal field.
Yet, yet, maintain your dang'rous post,
Yet check the overwhelming host,
Nor let the glorious strife be lost
Ere Hoghton can arrive.
In rapid march his legions come,
Joyful is heard his rolling drum.
His gallant shout of, "Charge them home!"
Redoubled spirits give.
As, step by step, his soldiers tread
O'er reeking bodies of the dead,
Their bayonets to the summit mow
A passage through the living foe.
Their chief from danger shrinks not back,
He leads them to the fresh attack,
And, as each inch of ground is won,
Courageously he cheers them on
Again the bayonet charge to try!
"Well done," he cries, "my lads! well done,
"Another such,—the French will run,
"And ours will be the victory!"
Scarce spoke he, ere some foeman's blow
Laid the heroic chieftain low;
Aim'd was the wound with rifle art,
To draw the life-blood from his heart;
Yet broke it not his spirit high,
His soul of dauntless bravery:
When Death's dark film bedimm'd his eye,
A feeble "Charge" upon his tongue
In that convulsive movement hung,
That sent his spirit to the sky.'

In the epistle dedicatory, the poet is less animated; and he introduces such inadmissible rhymes as *bore* and *war*; — and *saw* and *war* also occur.

Art. 17. *The Beauties of Carlo Maria Maggi paraphrased.* To which are added Sonnets. By Mariana Starke, Author of "The Widow of Malabar," "Letters from Italy," &c. Crown 8vo. 3s. Longman and Co. 1811.

Carlo-Maria Maggi is perhaps the most religious of the Italian poets; and though his writings convey rather the expression of his own devotional feelings than arguments to excite them in others, and are better calculated to inspire than to convince, yet they possess a pathetic and fanciful grace,

'Which without passing through the judgment, gains
The heart, and all its end at once attains.'

While, however, we consider this translation of his works as highly creditable to the talents of Miss Starke, we cannot suppress a wish that she had placed more restraint on her own imagination; since, by abstaining at least from such alterations as were not evident improvements, she would have given her English readers a more accurate idea of her author's style and sentiments. His similes, which are apposite and ingenious, she has sometimes weakened by amplification; thus, when he says,

> " —*le speranze mie furon di vetro,*
> *E di quel veico all' avvenir fo specchio,*"

this passage is rendered as follows, in Sonnet 5th;

> ' My brightest hopes were nought but fragile glass,
> No longer their destruction I'll deplore,
> But of the scattered fragments form a mass,
> Which in the furnace of experience joined,
> Shall prove, henceforth, a mirror for my mind.'

Some of Miss Starke's rhymes are not altogether admissible, as *join, divine,—barred, reward,—joined, mankind,— tomb, come,*—&c. The conclusion of the 'Ode to Eurilla in adversity' is so elegant and touching in the original, that we must lament that she did not translate it. She has, however, added some passages to this poem, which give it increased pathos; and many of her omissions may be considered as improvements on Maggi's lay.— The Sonnets, which are exclusively Miss Starke's own, contain much pleasing and appropriate imagery; and we hope that this may not be the last of the Italian poets with whose works she will make us acquainted, but that her correct knowlege of their language, and her feeling admiration of their merits, may induce her to invest others of them with an English dress which they would not themselves have blushed at weaving or at wearing.

The poems of Maggi are frequently mentioned, and much commended, in the correspondence between Miss Carter and Miss Talbot; (See Rev. Vol. lxi. p.142.) and Miss Starke informs us that the Countess Dowager Spencer was so much struck with his compositions, that she printed a *Scelta* of them at Pisa, in 1793.

Art. 18. *Ode on the present State of Europe.* By T. G. Lace. 4to. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

This is one of the poems which are interdicted by "men, gods, and columns." It is moderate indeed, and cannot even be called "coldly correct or classically dull." Why it is intitled an 'Ode', we cannot easily divine. The measure is that of Gay's fables; the humble eight-footed verse, which has of late wondered to see itself exalted into epic dignity, and is now laying claim to lyric honours:— but we perceive no animation, nor variety, nor vigour, nor grace, nor novelty, nor beauty, in either the thoughts or the expressions of this illegitimate 'Ode.' In a word, it is a composition which might have been *whistled* (for it demanded no effort of *writing*) after dinner, to the tune of "Lillibullero," or any other.—The author has chosen for his motto,

'Εις οἰωνος ἀριστος ἀμυνεσθαι περι πατρης—Homer.

We beg leave to suggest to him, as a more appropriate description of his *reverie* on the present state of Europe,

Ὑπνος ἐχε γλυκερος πολλα φρεσι μαρμαιροντα — Homer.

That the most candid of our readers may be satisfied as to the degree of somnolency under which the writer of this Ode must have laboured, we select, at random, a passage alluding to the Portuguese migration:

'An exiled monarch—Far away,
Him, now Atlantic gales convey,
To western climes remote. For there,
Fanned by mild spring's eternal air,
Another subject-kingdom spreads,
By cities rich, her fruitful meads.
Thither the monarch speeds his way,
There hopes to fix his happier sway;
And taste by warfare *unalloyed*
That peace his native land *denied.*
'*Event unparallel'd!* Oh, say,' &c. &c. &c.

Art. 19. *The Kiss,* a Comedy, in Five Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal, Lyceum, with the greatest Applause. By Stephen Clarke. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1811.

Either the author is mistaken, or the town is not fastidious. Such a play as 'The Kiss' received with the greatest applause! Impossible! Such a tissue of improbabilities has rarely disgraced the boards. Though we have as much kissing of hands as at a levee, in addition to the kiss in the grove, yet, as the whole business turns on the convenient machinery of a concealed door behind the arras, the piece ought rather to have been called *the Private Door:* but, in spite of the great 'applause' which this comedy is said to have received, we question whether this private door will be often opened.

BULLION-QUESTION.

Art. 20. *The Substance of a Speech delivered by Lord Viscount Castlereagh,* in a Committee of the House of Commons, May 8, 1811, on the Report of the Bullion-Committee. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 50. 2s. Stockdale, jun.

Lord Castlereagh is evidently desirous of apprizing the public that he has not only studied the bullion-question, but has formed a very decided opinion on it,—an opinion altogether hostile to the views and recommendations of the Bullion-Committee. He begins the speech here reported by asserting that the case of the Bank of Ireland in 1804, on which the Committee expatiated in their Report as analogous to the present situation of the Bank of England, was by no means such as they represented it; and that the re-establishment of the Irish exchange in 1805 was not accomplished by a reduction of the circulating paper of the Bank of Ireland. Before 1797, the common currency of Ireland was metallic, as is the case at present in France, and in all countries where credit is not thoroughly established between man and man. Until that year, guineas were annually transmitted in quantities from the Bank of England to Dublin: but this transmission ceasing after the restriction-act, the currency of Ireland has been brought to consist, in a great measure, of paper. Taking it for granted that the use of our currency is confined to ourselves, his Lordship is satisfied of the non-existence of depreciation of our bank-notes by the following process of reasoning: 'Both the note and the coin were intended for internal circulation, and for internal circulation alone. If the note commands the same value in commodities, and performs all the same functions, so far as relates to internal circulation, as the coin, there is no just ground to consider the note as depreciated.' With more correctness, he attributes (p. 15.) the disappearance of our guineas to the extraordinary crisis of our commerce with the continent, together with the magnitude of our military expenditure abroad. Notwithstanding his opposition to most of the doctrines of the Bullion-Committee, he admits that the restriction-act of 1797 is, like the suspension of the habeas-corpus-act, a temporary surrender of the sound and legitimate regulations of our ordinary system: but he is reconciled to it by the conviction that, in either case, such a temporary surrender was indispensable to the preservation of the system itself. Our former wars, he says, (p. 25.) were brought to a conclusion sooner than we wished, in consequence of financial pressure: but this war may be carried on year after year, in consequence of our discovering the means of substituting a paper for a metallic currency. — We must pause, however, before we join with his Lordship in accounting this so clear an advantage; or in pronouncing with him, (p. 29.) that it is not incumbent on the Bank to be regulated by the price of bullion in the amount of their issues. When he alleges decidedly, (p. 33.) that our bank-paper is not in excess, and (p. 35.) that the increased circulation of town and country bank-notes has no effect in raising the price of commodities, we would hint to his Lordship that these are very complicated questions; and that men, whose avocations have permitted a much larger share of attention to them than it has been in his power to bestow, are not ashamed to acknowlege their doubts in regard to the formation of a positive opinion.

With the same facility of decision, Lord C. declares that it was the decrees of Bonaparte and not those of our government which overthrew the equilibrium of our exchanges; and he has taken up the idea, (p. 46.) that his Corsican majesty was on the eve of abandoning his anti-commercial decrees, when, in an evil hour, the Report of the Bullion-Committee came to his knowlege, and encouraged him to enforce them twelve months ago with redoubled severity. — Without absolutely contradicting this notion, we would ask whether it be not likely that the long list of bankruptcies among us chiefly inspired the hope, while our successful resistance at Busaco excited the hatred, which were concurrent in the breast of Napoleon at the time of issuing the burning-decrees?

Lord Castlereagh is of the number of those who believe that it is not paper that has fallen, but gold that has risen in value. (p. 40.) His great objection to the doctrines of the Bullion-Committee is, that they proceed on the assumption of the practicability of adopting, in these times of disorder, measures which appear to him susceptible of execution only in a period of tranquillity. If we consider the variety of topics introduced in his Lordship's speech, it will appear brief in proportion to their number, and will be found to be rather a declaration of opinions than a series of arguments. The style is generally neat and perspicuous: but we cannot extend the language of compliment to the noble Viscount's reasoning; a great part of which is, as our readers will perceive, at variance with the views which a laborious investigation of the subject has led us to adopt.

Art. 21. *Substance of two Speeches delivered in the House of Commons by the Right Honourable George Canning*, on the 8th and 13th of May, in the Committee of the whole House, to which was referred the Report of the Bullion-Committee. 8vo. pp.155. 3s.6d. Hatchard.

Amply as the bullion-question has been discussed, a speech from Mr. Canning forms an attraction of sufficient magnitude to revive the drooping attention of the reader. To the few who have thoroughly studied the subject, an opportunity is here afforded of appreciating the ability of a statesman on a question, of which it may safely be said that it possessed too much public interest not to have called forth the exertion of his powers; although it should, on the other hand, be recollected that topics of finance have never constituted the official labours of Mr. Canning, nor has a claim to knowlege of them ever formed a pretension, on his part, to national confidence.

Mr. Canning begins by declaring that he is not the advocate nor the antagonist of either side; a statement which we are not disposed to question, though it happens that in these speeches the greater proportion of his argument is directed against Mr. Vansittart's propositions, or, in other words, against the course recommended by the ministry. He enlarges at some length in justification both of the motives and the opinions of the Bullion-Committee; qualifying his support, however, by a declaration that he does not go to the full extent of their conclusions. The chief point, in which he dissents from the Committee, regards the compulsory opening of the Bank at the expiration of two years, a recommendation in which he by no means concurs. His subjects of difference with the opponents of the Committee appear to be of more serious import. After having condemned (p. 16.) the language of those who would make the public believe the Bank-restriction to be a politic measure, and after having corrected Mr. Perceval for departing from the specific object of discussion and launching into topics of general policy, Mr. Canning broadly declares (p. 36.) his conviction that Bank-paper is at a discount, and combats, with much animation, the notion that it maintains its equivalency to coin. This equivalency, however it may be supported by the law, is not (he says) sustained by the actual transactions of merchants. If the Bank-note be not depreciated by paying an extra-price for the dollar, why, he asks, should not in like manner an extra-price be paid for the guinea? Here, however, we must remark that, had political œconomy been as favourite an object with Mr. Canning as the classics, he would probably have been ready to admit that the law which regulates silver, a subordinate coin in our circulation, may with great propriety be different from that which regulates gold. A considerable seignorage, to the extent of ten per cent., may be safely levied on the former; while on the latter it may be unadvisable to impose any higher premium than the cost of fabrication into coin. In other points, however, we are more disposed to agree with Mr. Canning. He censures very justly the law which prohibits the free exportation of our coin; and he ridicules with success the notion that the enemy is engaged in decoying from us our specie, and compressing it in his grasp, like a spider in his web. The chief cause of the exportation of our coin is to be found, he adds, in our own regulations,—in the law which makes paper of equal value with gold in all home transactions; and the consequence of which, particularly during the last three years, has been that gold has travelled abroad in large quantities. 'Gold,' he says, (p. 50.) 'would cease to be a preferable article for transmission abroad, from the moment at which it, like other articles, could be sold for its real value at home. But, imprisoned in the coin, and degraded by its imprisonment, gold has an unconquerable tendency to escape from a situation so unnatural; and it would make its escape from such a situation, even although you did not owe the continent any thing.'

While Mr. Canning thus forcibly and successfully illustrates one of the divisions of this complicated subject, he confesses (p. 56.) his slender knowlege of another most essential department; namely, the effect of the exchange on the state of our circulation. Like other men who are desirous to under-rate the difficulties which they find it not easy to surmount, Mr. Canning would gladly persuade himself that it is unnecessary to examine the operations of exchange; and that the existing anomaly in our money-system is fully explained without them. Yet he is far from asserting (p. 58.) that they pass for nothing among the causes of the disorder of our money-currency; and the discriminations which he is able to make, notwithstanding a limited acquaintance with the nature of exchange, are sufficiently striking to cause us to regret that he did not carry his researches farther. He sums up a part of his speech (p. 67.) by owning his 'entire though unwilling conviction, that a depreciation of our Bank-paper does actually exist; that the permanently unfavourable state of the exchanges with foreign countries is an indication, and the long-continued high price of bullion at home the proof of it.'

After having exclaimed (p. 72.) against the arguments brought in opposition to the recommendation of the Committee to reduce the amount of bank-notes, Mr. C. enters on the consideration of the propositions moved by Mr. Horner. Of these he approves the first seven, and, we may say, the first ten: but he records (p. 81.) a qualified dissent from the 11th, in as far as it has a tendency to impute the blame of over-issue to the Bank-Directors. The restriction in 1797 (the original source of mischief,) was the act, he states, not of the Bank but of Government; and, the check of cash-payments being once removed, it was not easy, he conceives, for either Bank-Directors or any other men to perceive at what time an over-issue began to exist. Mr. Canning opposes also several of Mr. Vansittart's opinions, and then proceeds to comment on Mr. Horner's remaining propositions; with all of which he concurs except the last, the object of which was to compel the resumption of cash-payments within two years. While he gives a negative (p. 90, 94.) to the idea of imposing a specific obligation on the Bank, he advises the House to sanction by its vote the other propositions of Mr. Horner, as accurate declarations of the principles of our money-system, and as land-marks to the Bank-Directors for operating a gradual retrenchment of the excess of our paper-currency. 'In the present state of the discussion,' he adds, 'I shall be well contented, if we come out of the committee with the principles of our money-system unequivocally recognized, and with the prospect of our return to the practice of them only not impaired.'

Mr. Canning's second speech is not possessed of equal interest with his first. It is more hastily composed, and is confined to animadversions on Mr. Vansittart's propositions, particularly the 1st, 3d and 15th. The 1st of these declared that the "regulation of the legal money of the kingdom has at all times been a royal prerogative;" an assumption which Mr. Canning considers as by no means established, and which, were it so, ought, in the language of Lord Liverpool, to be "exercised with the greatest judgment and discretion." The weight of Mr. Canning's argument and sarcasm is reserved for Mr. Vansittart's 3d proposition, which pronounced it "the opinion of the House that Bank-notes continue in public estimation, equivalent to the legal coin of the realm." To decree an opinion explanatory of the opinion of the public appears to Mr. Canning a novel kind of absurdity; and it excites his efforts of ridicule in a degree which we cannot help thinking is somewhat unsuited to the gravity of the subject. He does not appear to us much more successful in his strictures on Mr. Vansittart's 15th resolution; which declared that the high price of bullion was the consequence, not of depreciation of notes, but of the circumstances of our political and commercial situation. Mr. Canning's observations on this head, however pointed and animated, discover little knowlege of the operation of the causes on which he ventures to comment. — He concludes his speech by recommending that the Bank should make a fund of all their profits beyond the annual dividend of ten per cent., for the purchase of bullion and for other arrangements preparatory to the resumption of cash-payments; and that a beginning should be made forthwith in the reduction of our paper-circulation.

In forming an estimate of the general merit of these speeches, we are disposed to consider them as indicative rather of dexterity in argument than of profundity in research. Without affixing to them altogether an inferior estimation, we must confess that we rate them less highly than many are disposed to do, who have formed their opinion from the vivacity and fluency of the style: but while we are thus slow in bestowing praise on these compositions, it is due to Mr. Canning's general reputation to bear in mind that the subject is

ther distinct from his accustomed pursuits; and that he appears
e engaged in it on the spur of the moment, without much pre-
inquiry into it, or into collateral topics.

MISCELLANEOUS.

22. *The Contemplatist*; or a Series of Essays upon Morals
Literature. By William Mudford, Author of *Nubilia*, &c.
no. pp. 336. 9s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

iodical papers have so far had their day, that very extraordinary
s of genius are become requisite to invite general attention to
pecies of writing; and that man will be supposed to have his
are of vanity, who now seeks for celebrity in this department
rature. Mr. Mudford is fully aware of the difficulties and dis-
gements under which the Essayist labours, and commences his
taking 'with a mixture of confidence and timidity:' but it is
o perceive which of these two ingredients floats at top. Yet,
r motives are often complicated, as "self-love and social are
me," and as a man may court fame by striving to be useful,
roper to attend to the avowed motive of the *Contemplatist* in the
ation of these papers. His purport is thus stated:

is to make the improvement of life and the diffusion of mo-
my first and greatest object: to inculcate whatever can arm the
against the passions, or eradicate any unworthy sentiments
may prevail: to watch over the manners of society, and to
atize them with fearless severity, whenever they tend to corrup-
nd degeneracy: to furnish arguments for virtue, and objections
e: to seek the purification of the source of action, that, by
ing the spring, the stream may flow undefiled; and finally, to
othing (speaking with a reference to the individual powers of
which can either promote our moral happiness in this world,
r eternal welfare in a world to come.'

m the region of morals, the writer occasionally discurses into
f literature: but in the latter he discovers little taste or bril-
. In his style he is evidently an imitator of Johnson; and in
rious physiognomy of his papers, he has copied those models
occur in every series of periodical essays, from the *Spectator*
Mirror. Here we have an introductory essay, in which the
mplatist exhibits himself in all the glories of egotism, followed
reaming allegory, in which truth, wit, and humour, are repre-
l to be as obliging to him as if he possessed the fee-simple of
ssus; and having thus shewn himself off to advantage, he falls
he common track of moral essays, literary disquisitions, love-
s, letters, &c. His literary papers have no great merit; and
h in his moral essays he professes zeal in the cause of virtue, they
er a licentious warmth and a laxity of principle which do not
ort with an imitator of the *Rambler*. Mr. M.'s remarks on
ge, when taken in connection with the story of Julia, are likely
ke an impression which his thoughts on adultery and seduction
probably not counteract. His papers on the dignity of the
n mind, on self-knowlege, and against cruelty to brute-animals,
ritten with feeling and energy; but we must add that, considered

as a whole, the volume will not rank high among publications of the class to which it belongs.

Art. 23. *Chronology*, or the Historian's Companion: being an authentic Register of Events, from the earliest Period to the present Time. Comprehending an Epitome of universal History, antient and modern, with a copious List of the most eminent Men in all ages of the World. By Thomas Tegg. 12mo. 6s. bound. Tegg. 1811.

It appears to us that Mr. Tegg has inserted every event which we can reasonably expect to find in a work of this size, while his arrangements are judicious, and his little volume will be found both portable and useful: but, from a laudable desire to furnish as much information as was admissible, he has introduced some derivations of old phrases and contradictions of vulgar errors which have no connection with chronology, and very little with common sense. Many names which occur in this publication are also printed inaccurately; such as *Spencer* for *Spenser*, the poet; — *Le Sewer* for *Le Sueur*, — *Conimbra* for *Coimbra*, — *Herrin hunters* for *Herren huters*, or Moravian brethren; &c. &c.

Art. 24. *Professional Characteristics:* consisting of Naval Squalls, Military Broils, Physical Disasters, Legal Flaws, and Clerical Lamentations; uttered by an Admiral, a Colonel, a Lawyer, a Doctor, and a Parson, in the Coffee Room at Bath. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Allen. 1811.

This title-page sufficiently describes the character of the *jeu d'esprit* before us, which is rather an aukward imitation of the Miseries of Human Life, though some of the notions which it broaches are whimsical enough, and the several *technicalities* are well preserved. Any very idle ten minutes, (those, perhaps, which take place just before dinner is announced,) may be amused by a lucky peep into this volume: but there are many chances against the good fortune of the reader. In truth, we have had enough of this idea of "Miseries". It was originally good, but has been worn to rags and tatters. The lowest sort of wits are now ashamed of it, even in conversation; and if the author pursues it any farther, we must address him in his own manner — "*O* MISER! *inque dies ultra* MISER!"

Art. 25. *The Art of preserving all kinds of Animal and Vegetable Substances for several Years.* A Work published by Order of the French Minister of the Interior, on the Report of the Board of Arts and Manufactures, by M. Appert. Translated from the French. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Black and Co. 1811.

We learn that M. Appert professes to have made some considerable improvements in the art of preserving alimentary substances; and he makes good his claims by a reference to authorities which we can scarcely dispute, since he brings forwards the testimony not only of some respectable individuals who hold official situations in France, but also the sanction of some of their public societies. The method proceeds on the principle that any substance, either animal or vegetable, may be preserved without alteration, for an indefinite length of time, *without any addition*, merely by first excluding the air, and afterward by subjecting the substance to the heat of boiling water. In this way are prepared different kinds of animal food, and fruits and vegetables of all descriptions; the first without salt or any kind of condiment, the latter without sugar. This notice will probably induce most of our readers, who are interested in the details of domestic œconomy, to peruse M. Appert's work, and we believe that they will agree with us in thinking that their time and labor will not be misemployed.

Art. 26. *The Aleph-Beth:* or the first Step to the Hebrew Language. By H. V. Bolaffey, Hebrew Master, &c. lately Lecturer in the Talmudical College, Henage-lane, London. 12mo. 1s. Lunn, &c.

This first step extends only to the letters and the use of the vowel points, for the necessity of which to an accurate pronunciation of the language, this late Lecturer in the Talmudical college strenuously contends. He objects to the new mode of teaching the Hebrew tongue, and argues for the introduction of the *Masoretic* punctuation, as the true mode of acquiring that pronunciation of the Hebrew which has been transmitted from the most remote antiquity. The Jews certainly ought to understand their own language, and their method of teaching it ought to be considered. Many of their words cannot be pronounced without vowels supplied, and they must best know in what way this defect was obviated. Though the synagogue-copies of the Old Testament are without points, they are read according to the Masoretic punctuation, which is taught to their children. The present little book is useful in this view: but instead of *vav* and *tâv*, surely Mr. B. ought to have written *vau* and *tâu*.

Art. 27. *An Essay on Morality*, and on the Establishment of the Moral Principle. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1810.

We strongly inculcate on this writer the necessity of studying English grammar, before he composes any more essays of any description. Neither human nor divine truths come recommended (much less "*mended*") from his pen, who conveys old arguments in such language as the following:

'On this view we shall take religion upon the general idea of the belief in God, and a future state, and that of happiness, to accord with the general idea of religion and morality. As religion we might say almost universally consists of the belief in God, a future state, and that of happiness; and prescribe (*prescribes*) moral duties, or certain conduct to be observed by man, as good and virtuous conduct; although there may be some religions which may have prescriptions or forms not congenial to morality, as before has been observed.'

This sentence has many parallels in a little volume consisting of eighty-six pages.

Art. 28. *Letters, serio-comical, and ironical, on Education.* From Cameleon, an experienced Schoolmaster, to his Brother. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Baldwin. 1811.

The author of this work has saved us the trouble of reviewing it, by extracting a critique of his own from an imaginary journal, which he facetiously intitles the 'Autognostic,' and subjoining it to the present volume. 'His Letters,' (Cameleon's) 'will generally be found not only uninstructive but dull.' Cameleon does indeed *know himself*; and if he expects profit from this composition, we fear that he will feed his hopes on the unsubstantial food of the reptile from which he borrows his name. Though we cannot subscribe to the praise which he nevertheless has bestowed on himself, namely, that he can recommend this trifling performance to those who wish to kill time, we must beg leave to add to his self-inflicted *censure*, and to assert (notwithstanding his implication to the contrary) that he has dealt largely in personal scandal. He mentions several of our public schools, by name, with a sort of wanton disrespect, which only reflects on his own understanding.—The least exceptionable part of the book is a conversation between Cameleon and another character, in which the confused and indistinct use of the phrase, 'knowledge of men and things,' is tolerably well ridiculed:—but we must observe that, if Cameleon be really a school-master, we cannot give his pupils better advice than the Roman General gave to the young Falisci; or, to speak more plainly, than that which Lieut. Bowline gave to his nephew Roderick, and his merry schoolfellows.

Art. 29. *A Letter to the Rev. Christopher Wordsworth, D. D.* in Reply to his Strictures on the British and Foreign Bible Society. By Lord Teignmouth, President of the British and Foreign Bible Society. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Art. 30. *A Letter on the Subject of the British and Foreign Bible Society.* Addressed to the Rev. Dr. Gaskin. By an Old Friend of the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

It is strange that any jealousy should subsist between two societies whose object appears to be so similar, if not identical, as the Society for promoting Christian Knowlege, and the British and Foreign Bible-Society! Some members of the former, however, are dissatisfied with the constitution and proceedings of the latter, and have reprobated them with a severity which challenged notice. Lord Teignmouth, in his reply to the strictures of Dr. Wordsworth, vindicates the Bible-Society from the charge of baneful operation with which the Doctor assails it, and does not hesitate to avow that the liberal and comprehensive basis on which it is constructed is one great recommendation of it; observing that 'it is formed on a principle so simple and unexceptionable, that Christians of all sects and all denominations may conscientiously become members. Hence it has exhibited the singular phenomenon of an assemblage of Christians of various sects, cordially uniting in Christian charity to promote the glory of God, and the salvation of their fellow-creatures, by disseminating the Scriptures.' We could scarcely have supposed it possible that any person, sincerely desirous of advancing the kingdom of Christ, could raise his indignant quill against such an institution.

To prove that the new society has not injured the funds nor diminished the usefulness of the old, an appeal is made to facts, in the letter to Dr. Gaskin. It is shewn that in 1803, (the year before the Bible-Society commenced) the subscriptions to the society for the promotion of Christian Knowlege amounted to 2119l., and that in 1809 the subscriptions were increased to 3413l. If we advert also to the distributions, it will be seen that the number of bibles, new testaments, and psalters, issued by the society for promoting Christian Knowlege in 1803, was 17,779, and in the year 1809 the number issued was 22,611. By contemplating, moreover, the joint operation of the two societies, we shall see how much the latter comes in aid of the former. Bibles, testaments, and psalters, circulated by the old society, in 1800, were 13,763: but the bibles, testaments, and psalters circulated by *both* societies in 1809 were 99,883!! that is, 86,120 more were issued in 1809 than in 1800. Let these facts speak for themselves, and let the two societies proceed in amicable emulation.—In the letter to Dr. Gaskin, it is shewn to be very bad policy in the clergy of the Established church to speak in degrading terms of the Bible-Society. Both pamphlets are creditable to the writers, for the sound sense and liberality which they display.

Art. 31. *Anecdotes Sentimentales, par Mad. de Montolieu, Auteur de Caroline de Litchfield, &c.* 12mo. 5s. sewed. Deconchy. 1811.

These tales are still more moral than sentimental: they have interest enough to procure attention for the lessons which they convey; and we can recommend them as pleasing and instructive compositions.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 33. Occasioned by the Death of the Rev. Thomas Spencer, who was drowned at Liverpool, August 5, 1811, aged Twenty Years; preached at Union-Street Meeting, Brighton, August 18. By John Styles. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Williams.

The young minister whose death prompted the present discourse, and who was drowned as he was bathing, is represented as 'one of the greatest ornaments of human nature, who had perhaps more friends than any man of his age.' He was to have officiated at Brighton on the very day in which Mr. Styles preached his funeral sermon. To improve the affecting circumstance of Mr. Spencer's premature and unexpected dismissal from this world, the preacher exerts all his eloquence; and under the sad catastrophe which deprived him of a brother and a friend, and the church of a promising luminary, he exhorts his hearers to submit to the Divine Being, as the mysterious, the efficient, the independent, the righteous, and the merciful governor of the world. Every part of this discourse is appropriate and impressive, inculcating reflections and sentiments which ought to operate more than they do on the heart and conduct of ignorant misjudging mortals.

Mr. Spencer having been a handsome man, as well as a popular preacher, his portrait is advertised, at the end of the sermon.

Art. 34. *The Fall of David;* preached at All-Saints' Chapel, Bath, March 4, 1810. By the Rev. Lucius Coghlan, D.D. upon 2 Sam. ch. xi. ver. 1. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

The tendency of this sermon having been misrepresented, and the charge of indelicacy having been preferred against the preacher of it, Dr. C. considers himself as obliged on the principle of self-vindication to publish the discourse exactly as it was delivered, "with all its imperfections on its head." He acknowleges that it is a hasty production: but it is no otherwise indelicate than as it adverts to the criminal intercourse of David with Bathsheba, in language descriptive of the fatal indulgence of passion; and as it tells us (what needs not to have been told) that 'the strictest Jews did not at that time feel many scruples about committing fornication.' The danger of idleness is the burden of the song; and David's fall is attributed to his tarrying in Jerusalem, when he ought to have been with the army in actual service. This discourse reminded us of the saying of an old divine, "that the devil tempted other people, but that idle persons tempted the devil."

Dr. C.'s prefatory address to '*Ladies and Gentlemen*' is more in the style of the player than of the clergyman.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The pleasantry of Dr. Clarke's two letters is much to our taste, and we are glad to find that he takes our strictures in good part. The remarks in his second note, on the meaning of the word Στηλωσον, are essentially correct as far as they regard the sense of the root from which it is derived. It conveys the idea of stability in the first instance, and certainly meant to represent Jonathan as the *stay* of Israel. Though Στηλωσον is not a classic Greek word, it seems to be used substantively in 2 Sam. i. 19.; and like Στήλωμα, may be rendered *Column*, which has an inherent stability. Trommius, however, makes it signify *decus*, corresponding with the *Inclyti* of the Vulgate: but, as the LXX mistook the meaning of their original, it is not of much moment to ascertain the sense which they affixed to this Greek word. Parkhurst observes that צבי means the Gazelle, or Antelope; and the words which follow, "pierced on thine own mountains," shew that Jonathan was compared to some wild animal. Dr. C. speaks contemptuously of the Antelope as a kind of goat, but he must know that in the East it is classed among the most elegant and stately animals.

Amicus (*iterum, iterumque*) induces us to observe on his last note that *Faith*, in the passage in question, does not mean a belief in the peculiar tenets of Christianity; since the very exemplification of the subject, taken from the Epistle to the Hebrews, shews that Faith in this general acceptation signifies only a principle of piety corresponding with pious conduct.

Vindex observes that the word *moissonner*, in the French language, is often used in that figurative sense, as applied to those who die in battle, on which we made a remark in p. 457. *note*, of our last Appendix. We believe that he is right: but he should perceive that we also stated this application of it *generally*, not as particularly characteristic of M. Millin, whom he so generously defends.

☞ The APPENDIX to the last volume of the M.R. was published on the 1st of October, with the Number for September.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For DECEMBER, 1811.

ART. I. *Select Letters of Tippoo Sultan to various public Functionaries;* including his principal Military Commanders; Governors of Forts and Provinces; Diplomatic and Commercial Agents, &c. &c. &c. Together with some addressed to the Tributary Chieftains of Shânoor, Kurnool, and Cannanore, and sundry other Persons. Arranged and translated by William Kirkpatrick, Colonel in the Service of the Honourable East India Company. With Notes and Observations, and an Appendix, containing several original Documents never before published. 4to. pp. 648. 2l. 2s. Boards. Black and Parry. 1811.

A SOVEREIGN who plays so conspicuous a part in any country as was acted by Tippoo in India is a most interesting object in the history of his empire; and in proportion as that history is important, it is of moment to possess the means of knowing and estimating the character and operations of such a king. It is rare, indeed, that any monarch affords equal opportunities with those which have been furnished by Tippoo Sultan, for seeing into his mind, for appreciating his conduct, and for enabling us, by the relation which his character bore to that of his age and country, to judge equally of the latter. As the interest, also, which the British people have in the knowlege of Indian affairs is not small, the connection between their concerns and the volume before us is both visible and powerful. The publication is in fact important on various accounts; and English readers are highly indebted to the labour and the learning which Colonel Kirkpatrick has exerted in transfusing these documents into our language.

It is only to those readers, however, who *have minds*, that the perusal of the work will be very agreeable: they must be capable of gleaning and storing up evidence; and of being entertained with the contemplation of matters which have few charms in themselves, but which may be made to lead to interesting conclusions. They will be obliged also to combat with a variety of terms and customs which are foreign to their understandings and their habits; and they must occasionally endure an abuse of their countrymen, at which their national feelings will unavoidably revolt.

With respect to the materials which are here offered to the public, the translator affords us the following information in his modest advertisement, and in his preface:

'It is already generally known, that upon the reduction of Seringapatam, in the year 1799, all the public records of the then existing Government of Mysore passed into the possession of the captors. It is also, however, but too certain, that many of these precious documents were accidentally burnt, or otherwise destroyed, in the confusion and disorder which unavoidably ensued upon the assault of the fort: nor is it improbable, that some portion of them has disappeared, in consequence of falling, on the same occasion, into the hands of private persons, ignorant of the value, and indifferent to the preservation of their prize. But whatever loss may have arisen from the last mentioned cause, it is, nevertheless, owing to the active care, and intelligent research, of an individual, that several of the most important of the Mysore papers, now remaining, have been rescued from oblivion; and, among the rest, the very Register of public Letters, from which the correspondence, contained in the present volume, has been extracted. The gentleman here alluded to is Lieutenant-Colonel Ogg, of the East-India Company's Madras Establishment, to whose kindness the Translator is indebted for the chief part of the interesting materials relative to Tippoo Sultan, of which he is in possession.

'Of the state-papers discovered at Seringapatam, immediately after the capture of that place, many have been already communicated to the Public, through official and other channels. Those, in particular, which served to develope the more recent intrigues of Tippoo Sultan with the enemies of Great-Britain, were published, soon after his overthrow, by authority of the Supreme Government of India, and subsequently in this country. A report of the general nature of these documents was drawn up, at an early period, in pursuance of directions from Marquis Wellesley, by the present writer, who had been employed to examine them, and who suggested, at the time, the expediency of having the whole translated, preparatory to a proper selection being made from them, for the information of the public. The great pressure of business in the Persian Department prevented, however, the adoption of this recommendation, when first submitted to the Governor General; and the same cause has probably continued to operate, to the disappointment of the expectation which may be presumed to have been excited on the occasion. By none can this disappointment be more severely felt or regretted, than by the compiler of these sheets, who is too well acquainted with the eminent talents of the gentleman then at the head of the Persian Office in Bengal, not to appreciate duly the heavy loss sustained by the literary world at large, but more especially by such as are fond of enquiries into the Modern History of India, in consequence of his having been precluded, by his official avocations, from undertaking the task alluded to.

'But it may still, perhaps, be permitted us to hope, that this object has not been absolutely relinquished; and that some portion, at least, of the extensive and valuable documents, enumerated in the report just referred to, may at no distant period be submitted to the public eye, which, in the mean while, may possibly view with indulgence, the present specimen of the less copious, but equally curious and interesting materials, discovered subsequently to the date of that report. Of those materials, (or, rather, such of them as have reached the Translator's hands) the following sheets constitute only a part. The remaining letters of Tippoo Sultan, to say nothing of other documents in the writer's possession, would, after due selection, furnish abundant matter for another volume: but enough, probably, is here done, for the immediate gratification of the public curiosity. It must rest on the reception given to the present work, and on the state of the Translator's health, whether he shall hereafter attempt a continuation of it. However this may be, as the other materials, alluded to, have no necessary dependence, either upon those employed in the ensuing pages, or upon one another, no inconvenience can result to the reader or purchaser from their separate publication.' [*Advertisement.*]

'The register from which the following letters have been taken, and which has been cursorily noticed in the Advertisement, is the fragment, only, of a record, which, if it had reached us in a perfect state, would probably have exhibited copies of all the public or official correspondence of Tippoo Sultan, from the commencement to the close of his reign. Unfortunately, however, the portion of these highly interesting documents which has been preserved, or, at least, hitherto discovered, is not so extensive as could have been wished the correspondence, in question, not beginning till February 1785, and ending with November 1793.' But, even in this period, considerable chasms occur; while, from 1794 to 1799, is an absolute blank. In short, we are, at present, in possession of little more than a third part of the correspondence, which may reasonably be supposed to have taken place within the time spoken of: in which account, however, I do not include such detached letters of the Sultan as have come to us through other channels, and all of which are of a subsequent date to the latest of those recorded in the register.

'But whatever cause we may have to regret the actual deficiency of our present materials, we ought not, perhaps, absolutely to despair of its being yet supplied by the successful diligence of future enquirers. Adverting to the extreme regularity observed by the Sultan in the registry of his official correspondence, little doubt can be entertained of the existence of the now missing part of it, at the time of his death. Supposing it, therefore, to have escaped the destruction, which, as was stated in the Advertisement, swept away but too many of the archives of his government, it is still possible, that it may be recovered, out of the private hands into which it has probably fallen. In the mean while, the value of the portion actually preserved, is not, perhaps, essentially diminished, by the loss that appears to have been sustained. Enough remains, if not to elucidate every transaction of the Sultan's reign, at least to develope his singular character in the most satisfactory manner. The importance of these letters, indeed, does not consist so much in the light which they are calculated to shed on several material occurrences of the period they relate to (though, in this respect, they will certainly be found a useful guide to the future historian of Mysore) as in the vivid illustration which they afford of the genius, talents, and disposition of their extraordinary author, who is here successively and repeatedly delineated, in colors from his own pencil, as the cruel and relentless enemy; the intolerant bigot or furious fanatic; the oppressive and unjust ruler; the harsh and rigid master; the sanguinary tyrant; the perfidious negociator; the frivolous and capricious innovator; the mean and minute economist; the peddling trader; and even the retail shop-keeper. The painter will not be suspected of overcharging the unfavorable traits of the picture, when it is considered that *that* picture is his own.

'In making the present selection from about a thousand letters, I have confined myself, almost entirely, to such as either appeared to exhibit the Sultan in some new light; to unfold some of his political, financial, or commercial views; or to elucidate some historical fact. Those which merely related to the details of ordinary business, without eliciting any thing peculiarly characteristic of the writer, have been passed over. I have also judged it unnecessary to insert any part of the Sultan's correspondence with the several British Governors of India, as most of these documents are already in the possession of the public.' [*Preface.*]

It is not necessary for us to say much concerning the manner in which the translator has executed his task. In his preface, he explains the rules which he adopted for his guidance; and they not only appear to us to be highly judicious and appropriate, but we have no hesitation in adding that the business of translation is excellently performed. The air and character of the original (as far as it is possible to judge without having the original before us) seem to be well preserved, while at the same time we discover nothing peculiarly harsh in the English phraseology, or discordant with the English idiom. This, in truth, is all that it was possible to do, and all that was desirable to be done.

Besides, however, the task of translating, not a little was required of Colonel Kirkpatrick in the capacity of commentator. Various matters were to be explained, even to those who are well acquainted, in a general way, with Indian transactions; and still more to those who are not so instructed. The letters, being written in the course of business to persons who were necessarily conversant with the affairs in which they were engaged, are full of allusions to facts which are not stated, and to circumstances which are not explained. In this part of his work, the Colonel has left little or nothing farther to be desired. We recollect not any instance in which information was wanted at his hands in which it has not been supplied; and in a way that is in general equally creditable to the author and satisfactory to the reader. In addition to explanatory notes, affixed at the bottom of the page, and intended to furnish the verbal notices which are requisite for the elucidation of the text, he has subjoined to most of the letters *Observations* calculated to afford a view of the circumstances or affairs to which the letter related; and often containing a suggestion of the reflections which it seemed to him that the letter was calculated to excite.

As an exemplification both of the translation and the commentary, we may select the first letter, with the notes and Observations attached to it.

‘ To Mirza Mahommed Ali, Superintendant of the Elephant Stables at Nugr (Bidnore); dated Putn (or Seringapatam,) 2d of Byâzy, Year Uzl (17th February 1785.)

“ The humble address [you] sent [us] has passed under [our] view, and the circumstances submitted [therein] are duly comprehended. You write, “ that the Mûtusuddies[*] attached to you have “ adopted habits of ease and of lounging in Nugr, pretending that “ it is necessary for them to see and confer with the Taalûkdar[†] of “ Nugr; the consequence of which is, that fifteen days are con- “ sumed in preparing the accounts of one[‡], and that nothing is done “ excepting at Nugr, though a Kunry Mûtusuddy[§] (agreeably to “ our orders) attends on the part of Nursia[¶] to assist in the “ business.”

“ This [representation] has caused [us] the utmost surprize. Whenever the Mûtusuddies belonging to your department cease to yield you proper obedience, you must give them a severe flogging; and making them prepare, with the greatest dispatch, the lists and other papers required by our former orders, transmit the same duly to the Presence.”

‘ OBSERVATIONS.

‘ To understand the foregoing letter properly, it is necessary to suppose, what, indeed, is most probable, that the Elephant Mews, or Stables, were situated at some distance from the town of Nugr.

‘ This letter furnishes a proper occasion for cautioning the reader, who may not be conversant in the history, or acquainted with the genius, or frame, of the native governments of India, against hastily drawing any general conclusions, with respect to the latter point, from the particular practice, or maxims, of Tippoo Sultan. The conduct of this prince was too commonly governed by caprice, and was too often the mere result of individual feelings and character, to afford a just criterion of the generality of Asiatic sovereigns, or Asiatic states. Thus, any one who should be led to infer, from the punishment here directed to be inflicted on the idle clerks of the ele-

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‘ [*] Clerks or Accountants.’

‘ [†] The Manager of a District.’

‘ [‡] Or the meaning may be, “ neglect their ledger for fifteen days at a time.”

‘ [§] A Canarese Clerk.

‘ [¶] The name of the Manager.’

phant department, that it is customary in India (as in China and Russia) to flog any but the menial servants of government for neglect of duty, would be greatly mistaken: as he would, also, if he supposed, that castration was no uncommon penalty in that country, for corruption, or other misdemeanors in the administration of public affairs, because the Sultan sometimes thought proper to threaten official delinquents with that punishment. The fact is, that all his Hookm-nâmehs, or instructions to the governors of provinces, and others, conclude with a denunciation of the penalties to which they will be liable, in case of disobedience or disregard of the orders contained in them. Sometimes these are generally stated, under the vague, but emphatic, term of "the worst of punishments:" at others, they are specifically named; as crucifixion, in one or two instances, and emasculation, in others. Whether or not the latter menace was ever, in any case, actually executed, I am not able to determine; but there is nothing in the character of Tippoo Sultan to render the affirmative unlikely. Colonel Munro assures me, that it is an absolute fact that on one occasion he ordered all the male population of a particular village, which had given him offence, to be castrated.

'What the practice of Hyder Ali was on similar occasions, I have not the means of stating; but there is sufficient reason to suspect, that the example of the father was not much calculated to restrain the severity, or cruelty, of the son. It is certain, indeed, as I learn from Colonel Wilks, that Tippoo himself was once publicly bambooed (or caned) by order of Hyder, in whose good graces he would never appear to have stood very high. This opinion is strongly confirmed, by a most curious original document, which I met with at Seringapatam, in the year 1799, while employed in examining the mass of papers discovered more immediately after the capture of the place. I found it amongst a variety of other papers of the time of Hyder, deposited in a basket or box, where it had probably remained undisturbed and forgotten ever since his death. It is a narrow slip, about twelve inches in length: is entitled, at top, اقرارنامه or "an agreement;" beneath which words is the impression, in ink, of a small square seal resembling, in all respects, the usual signet, or ring-seal, of the Sultan, and bearing, together with the name "Tippoo Sultan," the date "1184" (Higera.) The instrument itself is without date; but it must, of course, have been executed some time between the year 1769 (the period when the seal was engraved) and 1782, in which last year Hyder died. On the back of this paper is a short endorsement of two or three words, in Canarese, which, I am sorry to say, I cannot explain.

'I am equally unable to determine, whether this interesting document is in the hand-writing of the Sultan. It certainly bears but little resemblance to the specimens exhibited in a great variety of notes and memorandums, written by him in the latter part of his life. But his hand-writing might well undergo a material change in a period of twenty or thirty years; besides which, I suspect that most of the articles of his writing which happen to be in my possession, were written with a gold or silver pen, which he was much in the practice of using, and of which I obtained two or three at Seringapatam that had belonged to him. This occasioned his later writing (at least what I have seen of it) to have an air of stiffness and crabbedness, of which there is not near so great an appearance in the document under consideration.

'But it is not essential to the authenticity of this paper that it should have been written in the Sultan's own hand. The place in which it was discovered, joined to the seal and internal evidence furnished by its extraordinary tenor, sufficiently establishes its genuineness; but whether the engagement it contains was voluntarily entered into by the Sultan, or exacted by Hyder, does not appear. The latter, however, is not unlikely to have been the case, notwithstanding what the writer himself declares in the eighth article. After this general account of the document in question, I proceed to present the reader with a translation of it; and, for the satisfaction of those conversant in the language of the original, a fac-simile of it is given in article C. of the Appendix.'

Other specimens would be necessary in proof of the labours and the merits of Colonel Kirkpatrick: but, as we shall have occasion to produce various extracts in illustration of the very extraordinary character of the author of the letters themselves, and of the important conclusions which it suggests, these quotations will likewise serve the purpose of displaying the manner in which the letters have been translated and explained.

It is not an easy task to give an account of the intrinsic information which is contained in this volume. The historical facts and events to which it relates are not in many instances very curious, because they either are not of much magnitude, or they are well known: but the inferences to which it is calculated to give birth, and which are innumerable, are the points that constitute its value. To exhibit them, and the evidence on which they rest, would be to transcribe the book, and to add to it an extensive commentary. We must content ourselves, therefore, with examples, both of the thoughts which the work suggests, and of the grounds of them which exist in its pages.

The character of Tippoo is the first and leading object. He was laborious and watchful to a degree which it is very instructive to contemplate, and very difficult to parallel. 'He had,' says Colonel Kirkpatrick, 'his pen for ever in his hand; and he himself (whether from inclination, or from an universal distrust of all whom he employed, or from a passion to be thought not only the principal, but the sole originator of every thing) directed, either by writing or orally, the most minute details of his government.' In his memoirs, written by himself, in which he gives an account of the siege of Mangalore, he furnishes us with the following, among other instances of his vigilance and self-denial;

'"In short, during three months, such was the slaughter *on both sides*, that the trenches exhibited nothing but a mixture of mud and clay with the blood and flesh of men. The toes of many were completely rotted, in consequence of the excessive rains, and owing to the mire [in the midst of which they were constantly forced to stand]. Often of a dark night, and [wading] through the floods occasioned by the heavy rain and wind (which here always exceed any thing known in other parts of our kingdom), I say, often during this time, have I, both by night and day, gone the rounds, to see that the necessary works were properly carried on, and that the Ahemedy people were duly watchful. In consequence, it happened that two or three Sirdars, and others, fell, in the darkness of the night, into wells, which were then quite full, and became martyrs, without any one's knowing of the accident. Moreover, at this time, the water lay on the ground knee-deep."'

Tippoo's Memoirs, from which the foregoing is an extract, form a very curious document. He began them when he was forty years of age; and though they are by no means complete, yet they afford very important proofs both of the state of his government, and of his powers of attention and labour. Colonel Kirkpatrick has gratified us with large and curious specimens of this remarkable production.

That the government of the Sultan was extremely irregular, the stage of civilization at which he and his people were placed necessarily implies. It was devoid of those systematic contrivances for checking one part of administration by another, which belong only to a civilized and enlightened period. All its springs were irregular and violent, as the springs of government usually are among a turbulent and barbarous people; and any excellence, in any respect, which it possessed, arose, as in such cases it always arises, from the personal character of the sovereign. Now the reign of Tippoo Sultan does afford some very strong facts, which testify in favour of his talents for command. His servants were almost all uniformly faithful; and few circumstances can be pointed out more widely evidentiary than this. The evidence, too, is afforded by Colonel Kirkpatrick in a passage in which, as usual, he is conveying the meanest and most hateful idea of the Sultan's government. It is contained in the observations attached to the 137th letter in this collection; a letter which was addressed to Zynûl Aabideen Shoostry, who had been sent to chastise a refractory district. Of this officer, Colonel K. gives us the following account, in his Observations on a preceding letter:

'The person to whom the foregoing letter is addressed was a brother of Meer Allum, so well known as minister for English affairs at the court of Hyderabad. I do not know at what period he engaged in the service of Tippoo Sultan; but I believe, that no intercourse, of any kind, subsisted between the brothers. Zynûl Aabideen, though occasionally employed by the Sultan in situations of trust, would appear to have been principally esteemed for his supposed literary qualifications. He it was who composed the Futhûl' Mûjâhideen, under the immediate direction of the Sultan himself. He was also the author of the Sûltâne Tuwâreekh, mentioned by Colonel Wilks, in the Preface to his valuable History of Mysore; but this work appears to have been little more than a rhetorical amplification of the Sultan's own Memoirs, as far as the latter went. The reproof given to Zynûl Aabideen, in the present dispatch, is mild in the extreme, compared with the invectives which we shall hereafter see bestowed upon him.'

The passage to which we allude, and the letter to which it refers, are as follow:

"Your two letters, of the 2d and 5th of Zuburjudy, have been received, and their contents are duly understood. We enclose two Purwânehs, one for the Aumil of Hybutpoor, the other for the Aumil of Koondnoor, directing them each to dispatch a thousand *goonies* of grain [*] to that person of mighty degree [†]. You will forward these Purwânehs to their address; and, on receiving the two thousand *goonies* of grain, dispatch the same to Zuferâbâd. Your wounded you are to send to Hybutpoor, the Aumil of which place has been written to respecting them. Of the two surgeons with you, one must accompany the wounded to Hybutpoor; the other will remain with you.

"A hundred *Clashies* [‡] have been sent to you from the Presence: a thousand bundles of cartridges have likewise been dispatched. Your detachment took with it, in their cartridge-boxes, forty-eight thousand musket-cartridges, besides fifteen thousand spare cartridges, making together sixty-three thousand cartridges. You write, "that you have not remaining more than from fifteen to twenty cartridges in each cartouch-box:" at this rate, the expenditure of cartridges has been very great. *We are curious to know, and desire you will inform us, how many of the enemy have been sent to hell* [the grave, *Rev.*] by the expenditure of *such a number of cartridges.* We also desire to be informed of the amount of the rebel force. One hundred of your men being wounded, no doubt great numbers of the enemy must have been killed and wounded.

"It is truly wonderful that you, whose pen was employed in describing, in the Futhûl' Mûjâhideen, the mode of making war in a close and woody country, should, at the moment of your being yourself engaged in conducting a similar warfare, have forgotten the rules there laid down. If you had carried on your operations according to those rules, you would never have sustained the loss you have done.

‘[*] I do not know the amount of this weight or measure: the *Goonies*, or *Gunnies*, are bags made of a sort of hempen cloth.’

‘[†] This title would appear to have been applied, in this place, rather sneeringly.’

‘[‡] Men employed about *tents, &c.*’

"With respect to your reiterated representations of the expediency of our repairing, in person, to that quarter, we answer, that (God willing) we shall shortly arrive there with an *inconsiderable* force, with which we trust we shall be enabled utterly to kill and destroy the enemy.

"Now that you are about to proceed with grain, and other supplies, to Zuferâbâd, be mindful to regulate your march according to the rules laid down in the Futhûl' Mûjâhideen for operations in a close country; and to conduct the convoy, with circumspection, to its destination."

'OBSERVATIONS.

'It may be inferred, from the foregoing dispatch, that Zynûl Aabideen had received rather a serious check from the Koorgs. This conjecture derives the more support, from the circumstance of the Sultan's judging it necessary to proceed in person against the insurgents. I have, at this time, no means of ascertaining what force he actually took with him on this occasion; but though he affected to make so light of the business, it is not probable that he would put any thing to hazard, by proceeding against such a determined enemy with a *very* inconsiderable force. I am ignorant of the sequel of Zynûl Aabideen's history. It is, however, probable, that the Sultan did not again entrust him with the management of the sword, but confined him, for the future, to the exercise of his pen.

'It seems impossible, that any thing, like that nice sense of honour which usually distinguishes persons of a liberal education, and particularly those of the military profession, should have existed in an army (or indeed in any other branch of a government) the superior officers of which were accustomed to be addressed by their sovereign in such coarse and degrading language, as that adopted by Tippoo Sultan in expressing his occasional disapprobation of their conduct; accordingly, few, if any, men of superior birth or elevated sentiments were ever known to have appeared amongst the higher classes of his subjects. These classes, in fact, were almost exclusively composed of persons of humble origin, and mere adventurers; who having been trained in implicit submission to the will of a cruel and unprincipled tyrant, could not be expected to exhibit any portion of that loftiness of spirit or generosity of disposition, which still adorn many of the genuine descendants of the ancient nobility of the Mogul empire; and would still make them spurn at any action, by whomsoever commanded, which they thought incompatible with their habitual notions of honour, or with the obligations of family pride. It was not so with the nobles (if nobles they might be called) of Tippoo Sultan's court. They were, on all occasions, the passive instruments of their master; at whose nod they were used to murder, betray, and pillage, certainly without remonstrance, and, most probably, equally without repugnance.

'But however deficient this order of men may have been in the species of spirit and honor which we have been considering, they would not appear to have been wanting in fidelity to his government, not to say attachment to his person. With this last sentiment, it was not, perhaps, in the nature of things, that a man of his harsh and unconciliating disposition should be capable of inspiring them *: but their general character of loyalty must be allowed to have been unimpeachable. To what degree this adherence to him might proceed from a real sense of duty and gratitude, is a question not easy of decision. No doubt, some of his principal servants might have been, and probably were, influenced by such motives: yet, I confess, I am of opinion, that it was owing less to considerations of this kind, than to the precautions adopted by the Sultan for its prevention, that so few instances of defection occurred among them, during the different wars in which he was engaged. It was his practice to oblige all the chief officers of state, and others holding employments of material trust, to fix the residence of their families permanently in Seringapatam; from whence their removal, without his knowledge and concurrence, became impossible. This expedient may be easily conceived to have had the effect of confirming the fidelity of many, who might otherwise have been prompted, by discontent, or other reasons, to quit Mysore. But if this miserable policy answered the Sultan's immediate purpose, it also promoted one, which he little contemplated at the period of its adoption. The final conquest and settlement of Tippoo Sultan's dominions by the English, was facilitated by nothing so much, as the circumstance of the families of most of the principal men of the country having fallen into their hands, along with the fortress of Seringapatam.'

We see here that nothing can be stronger than the testimony rendered by Col. Kirkpatrick to the fidelity of Tippoo's servants. This testimony was agreeable to the habits of honour and veracity which belong to British officers: but it may here be a proper place for observing that, in common with their countrymen at large, they are too much induced to conceive every thing bad, and to regret the idea of every thing good, in the character of any one who is their enemy; — at least if a formidable enemy; — and whose actual vices supply any basis of censure. It must be owned that this disposition, especially in the strength in which it exhibits itself among us, is not much in unison with that gallantry and high-mindedness which we surely may say do really belong to us. It is a disposition, no doubt, which prevails to a great extent in every nation: but it exists with peculiar strength in England; and there in its greatest perfection among the gentlemen of the sword.—This letter affords a specimen of the manner in which Col. Kirkpatrick seizes every occasion of expressing his prepossessions against the character of Tippoo. He reprobates the harsh and

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' * It has been affirmed by some, that Tippoo Sultan was in conversation "remarkably lively and entertaining;" but I have strong doubts of the correctness of this statement. It very ill accords with his general character, and is, in some measure, contradicted by himself in one of his "Dreams," where he distinctly says, "that it was not his custom to enter into playful discourse with any one."'

atrocious severity with which he says that Tippoo reproved his officers: but really we do not perceive that the language of the letter itself deserves to be called 'coarse and degrading.' The letter supposes that serious military blunders and misconduct had taken place; and we know nothing which should lead us to infer that the supposition was unfounded. Now if we imagine an European sovereign to be writing, with his own hand, a letter of reproof to an officer who had so misconducted himself, the terms would not be the same, certainly: but they might be fully as expressive of displeasure, or even of contempt. It is to be remembered that Tippoo and his people were yet in an unpolished state of society, in which the forms of address are not smoothed. Yet this letter contains nothing that can be compared with the harshness which Queen Elizabeth, — a woman, and hence more restrained by the decencies of behaviour,—was accustomed to use to the highest and most sacred characters in her kingdom. Her famous letter to the Bishop of Ely will here stand in very instructive counterview:

"Proud prelate, I understand you are backward in complying with your agreement: but I would have you know that I who made you what you are, can unmake you; and if you do not forthwith fulfil your engagement, *by God!* I will immediately unfrock you. Yours, as you demean yourself, *Elizabeth.*"[*]

Indeed this celebrated Queen would not only give harsh language but *blows* to her courtiers, and could shake a dying Countess in her bed.—The following is a letter of another European sovereign; not less an one than Louis XI. of France; which he wrote, as his historian *Duclos* informs us, *sur un sujet peu important:*

"*Chancelier, vous avez refusé de sceller les lettres de mon maſtre-d'hôtel Boutilas; --- dépechez-le sur votre vie.*"

It was the same sovereign, of the same polite people, who, — expressing displeasure with one of his highest officers, intrusted with an important negotiation, and receiving for answer that the negotiators on the other side were the cause of the little progress of the affair, since they *lied* so much that no dependance could be placed on what they said,—cried out to his ambassador, "*Eh, bête, que ne mens tu plus qu' eux!*"

Such was the by no means unusual style of these great European sovereigns; certainly not matched by any thing in the present letters of Tippoo. When Col. Kirkpatrick speaks of superior birth, and elevated sentiments, as rare articles about Tippoo, we would ask where they were to be found in India; and whether, when the Mogul empire was in all its glory, the

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[*] Hume's England, Vol. v. p. 472.

ho rose to the chief offices were not in general the
' adventurers,' and most frequently foreigners ?

Colonel is likewise very severe on the literary abilities of
ltan : but we think that he himself has, with his usual
y and fidelity, afforded in this case strong evidence
himself. To us the letters of Tippoo, all things con-
, appear so well written, as considerably to raise the
n which we had previously entertained of his talents.
ndicate, in general, a very clear conception of the busi-
which they relate ; and they communicate the will and
on of the writer with precision and force. The Colonel
es on *want of connection*, *want of order*, *want of method*,
it do oriental writings ever possess these qualities ? If
o's letters be compared with the very best writings in the
n tongue, the difference will not appear prodigious.
all make what appears to us to be a fair proposal : let
mpositions of any sovereign in Europe, *the best author*
them, be compared with the best European productions,
e difference will be found far greater than between the
of Tippoo and the best Persian writings. We trust that,
is comparison be proved not to hold, Col. Kirkpatrick
gives us, as we hope he will, any more of the writings of
ltan) will not speak with such *critical severity* of the
re of his vanquished and departed enemy.—We should
dd a specimen of the literary powers of the Sultan,
is very satisfactory because it exhibits him both as a
writer and as a writer of memoirs : but its great length,
e extent to which this article will otherwise reach, will
rmit us to do more than refer the reader to Letter clxix
ol. K.'s subsequent ' Observations.'

is very true, however, as Col. Kirkpatrick so often re-
, that the present letters discover a harsh and imperious
ition : but consideration and reflection appear to be used
guidance of it. The Sultan's temper does not seem to have
the sport of caprice ; and a man was not in danger of
put to death, because Tippoo had been troubled with
stion. That he was often cruel, we see no reason to
: but it was in the punishment of insurrection, or in the
ent of enemies, especially English enemies; against whom
tred and antipathy were extreme. That his servants
ered themselves safe in his employ, their attested uniform
y strikes us as a proof equal to a thousand. As to his in-
ity towards enemies, actual or presumptive, and whether in
ay of negociation or otherwise, however worthy of every
of reprobation, it is really so common among govern-
, that we ought not to consider it as peculiarly tainting
the

the character of Tippoo. Among Indian sovereigns, also, the powers of cheat and deception have been always regarded as some of the very first qualities for the business of command.

Tippoo's extreme attachment to the Mohammedan religion, in which he was an enthusiast and a bigot, a proselytizer and a persecutor, was one of the most unhappy circumstances in the composition of his mind. It strengthened and exasperated all the bad parts of his character, and thwarted and weakened all the good: it assisted him in following up his resentments against the English; and it afforded him a motive to his own mind for many of the bad actions against them of which he was guilty.

Few things more decisively attest the existence of strength of mind in sovereigns than their being aware how much their situation exposes them to flattery; and a very remarkable proof is given by Tippoo, in a passage of his own memoirs, of the degree in which he saw through the complaisance of his followers. He had, on a certain important occasion, called a council of war; and he thus himself states what took place:

> "I moreover interrogated the *Sirdars* [or chief officers] of the army, respecting the [best] mode of conducting the war, and the attack [most proper] to be made [in the first instance]; when they all, according to their [respective] abilities [or powers], delivered their opinions: none of which, however, were agreeable to my mind. At this time [or hereupon] calling upon God the Bountiful, and imploring his aid, I said, 'Please the Almighty God, I will proceed against *Adoni*, which is at a distance from the boundary of the Sircar, and is a strong place, where the honour of Nizâm Ali Khân is lodged. Attacking this place, we must obtain possession of it. If, for the sake [or preservation] of their honor, the two Sirdars should come [to its relief], we shall see [the extent of] their strength and power.' This opinion [or plan] was *apparently* assented to by all those in attendance [upon me]; but God [only] knows what they inwardly [or really] thought [on the occasion.]"

The real state of the case, with regard to the character of Tippoo, was this. He was a very superior man in the stage of society in which he and his people moved, and possessed most of the virtues and many of the vices which characterize such a period. Other vices, the peculiar fruit of so high a situation as he filled, in every stage of society, not less decidedly belonged to him. He was imperious, intolerant of contradiction, and impatient of disappointment. In fact, his character was very mixed and irregular: but it rose so high in many of those qualities which render a sovereign formidable to his neighbours, that the chance of such another prince arising in India, capable also of profiting by his mistakes, is a prospect not to be viewed without serious caution by the British rulers in that country. The state of society is ripe for the production of such characters; and it will require a vigorous and well organized government, on our part, to enjoy any sort of security in such a situation of affairs. This is the great practical conclusion to be drawn from the consideration of Tippoo's character and the history of his reign. Nothing is so dangerous to our government in India as its falling asleep: unremitting vigilance is the foundation on which it stands; and if it ever slides into habits of negligence and apathy, its duration will not be long.

Another lesson, and one that is still more important, is also visibly taught by the contemplation of Tippoo's government, as it is by the contemplation of every other of a similar nature, viz. the inherent weakness and imbecility of despotism. This is well remarked by Col. Kirkpatrick:

> 'The two preceding letters satisfactorily prove, how independently the superior officers of the army sometimes acted, and how feeble Bûrhânûddeen's authority over them was. But this is an evil inherent in the constitution of all Indian armies: and perhaps, it was less prevalent in that of Mysore, than in any other native army of Hindostan.
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> 'It might at first view, and on general principles, be supposed, that it was much easier to introduce strict military discipline into the armies of arbitrary states, like those of the East, than into any other: and so, no doubt, it would be, if it were not for the distrust and jealousy natural to the rulers of such states, who fear to invest their commanders with the powers necessary to the due maintenance of subordination, lest the latter should, on any occasion, be tempted to employ them for traitorous purposes. Instead, therefore, of strengthening the hands of their Generals, by concentrating in them the powers which they are compelled to delegate (but which they circumscribe as much as possible), they judge it expedient, with a view to their own security, to divide and parcel them out among the different commanders; and, in fine, to establish in their armies such a system of checks, as leaves but little efficient or useful authority any where. To this more general and remote cause of the great insubordination observable in the armies of the East, may be added another, more particular and immediate (arising, as it were, necessarily out of the former); and that is, the total want of fixed or written rules for their government: the consequence of which, of course, is, that disorder and confusion pervade the whole body, almost every thing relating to which is made to depend on the caprice and partial views of individuals.
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> 'Tippoo Sultan, as if sensible of this last defect in the constitution of his army, in common with those of his neighbours, would appear to have aimed at correcting it in some measure; and for this purpose (though, probably, not with any very deep or accurate views of the subject)

subject) caused to be compiled and disseminated a military code, or treatise, which he entitled *Futhûl' Mûjâhideen*, or, "the Triumph of the holy Warriors." I have not, hitherto, had an opportunity of examining this work, with attention; but the impression made on me by a cursory inspection of it, some years ago, inclines me to think, that it treated chiefly of the manual exercise, evolutions, and similar details, and contained but few regulations, calculated to ascertain and uphold the authority of the superior, or to inculcate and enforce the obedience of the inferior ranks of the army.'

Yet it has not unfrequently been alleged by weak, and sometimes by designing men, that the little success which our arms have experienced, in the course of our wars against the power of revolutionary France, has been owing to the freedom of our constitution; and that were our government more despotic, it would be more a match for France. We apprehend that few of our readers will fail to recollect various instances, and some of them very remarkable, of the utterance of this sapient opinion, since Mr. Pitt began his ever-memorable exploits in behalf of religion and social order.

This imbecility of despotism affords, no doubt, to a certain extent, a security to our dominion in India; yet a great share of vigour in the person of the sovereign sometimes largely compensates for this defect. Such compensation is barely temporary: but a short period of strength might be fatal to us; for

Art. II. *Political Essay on the Kingdom of New Spain*, containing Researches relative to the Geography of Mexico, &c. &c. by Alexander de Humboldt. With Physical Sections and Maps, founded on astronomical Observations, and trigonometrical and barometrical Measurements. Translated from the original French by John Black. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 965. with an Atlas. 1l. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

The political struggles in Spanish America, which have taken their rise from Bonaparte's attempt to usurp the government of the mother-country, and our uncertainty whether these contests will lead to a definitive separation, confer a particular interest on a work which presents information in regard to the condition and resources of this trans-atlantic empire. The attraction excited by the subject receives also much addition from the name of a traveller, who adds to the activity of an inquisitive mind the stores of extensive erudition, and the accommodations afforded by the possession of independent fortune. The reader of Baron de Humboldt's book is therefore intitled to expect an interesting and instructive production; and as far as solidity of thought and novelty of information are his objects, he will experience no disappointment. If, however, he expects perspicuity of arrangement, or condensation of language, his chance of gratification will be greatly impaired; the author not having given, either in the present or in his former works, any evidence of his title in these respects to literary renown. He furnishes a striking example of the difference of the habits which are required for the observations of active travelling, and the patient labour of in-door composition. Haste, and its usual concomitants, diffuseness and repetition, are the great blemishes of the book before us, and prevent us from finding amusement in that which we are satisfied beforehand will not fail to convey instruction.

These objections are not by any means removed in the English dress in which M. de Humboldt is now made to appear. The translator is evidently a man of education and capacity; he has supplied a judicious preface, and has subjoined, on different occasions, notes which, if not conspicuous for force and originality, possess the merit of impartiality and good sense: but his version appears to have been made with as much expedition as the composition of the original; and we are scarcely disposed to admit the validity of an apology offered in the preface, and founded on the plea of the impatience of the public. The translation is not even complete, extending only to Chap. ix. of Book iv. which forms the first of the 2d quarto volume of the Paris edition: the whole of which, Mr. Black says, he had not been able to procure when he suspended his labours.

Complete copies, however, we know, have since reached England, and we have indeed one now before us; so that we suppose Mr. B. will resume and finish his task.

Baron de Humboldt begins by lamenting the prevailing ignorance of the public in regard to the geography of New Spain; observing that the positions of the most celebrated mines, and of cities containing 50,000 inhabitants, are omitted in the greater number of the maps published in Europe. The permanent tranquillity enjoyed by New Spain has prevented the acquisition of the useful but dear-bought information which results from the progress of armies, and which has been collected in such abundance in Hindoostan during the last half century of warfare and insurrection. That the materials for a geographical delineation of America are very imperfect needs not surprize us, after having been told by M. de Humboldt, when treating of our own hemisphere, that in Spain and Poland, 'on surfaces of more than 1600 square leagues, there is not to be found a single place whose position has been fixed by astronomical means.' While he discourages any attempt to extend trigonometrical observations over so vast a surface as the whole of New Spain, a territory five times as large as France, he explains the practicability of carrying a survey of this nature into effect throughout the northern and more populous part of that region. The instruments with which a traveller should equip himself for the journey consist of a sextant or small repeating circle of reflexion, a chronometer, an achromatic telescope, and a portable barometer for measuring the height of mountains. The application of these simple instruments to a certain number of the principal positions would supply all that is wanted for a map of the interior, in which a scrupulous regard to accuracy is not so indispensable as in the case of a marine chart. In the latter, as is justly remarked by this experienced geographer, all the points should be equally well determined, since the safety of navigation depends on them; each being likely to serve as a point of departure or observation, and there being none which are not connected with others.

After all that we have heard of the oppressive jealousy of the Spanish government in former ages, our readers will learn with a mixture of surprize and satisfaction that a considerable change in this respect has taken place in late years. Before the expedition of M. de Humboldt, which began about twelve years ago, the Spanish government had incurred great expence for accurate surveys of the coast; and, with a boldness forming a singular contrast to their former timidity, had published to the world the most minute plans of the Havannah, of Vera

Cruz, and the mouth of the Rio Plata. In the case of Baron Humboldt, the Spanish government furnished materials for several official papers on the commerce and manufacturing industry of the colonies; an attention which draws forth an effusion of gratitude, and makes him exclaim, with no slight degree of ardour, that 'we live no longer in times when governments dread to expose to foreign nations their territorial wealth in the Indies.' After this encomium on the higher powers, he proceeds to lay before his readers a long and minute explanation of the means employed to obtain accuracy in his geographical researches. Nearly a hundred pages of the introduction are occupied with observations respecting local positions, and with an enumeration of the maps and plans which he found it expedient to consult. Highly as we value the result of these methodical labours, we must confess that we should have willingly been spared a part of the circumstantial and verbose detail into which the author has entered; and that we experienced no unpleasant sensation when we found him pass, at last, from local and technical observations, to comments of a more general character on the situation of the country.

One of the most remarkable differences between the old and the new continents consists in the greatly superior elevation of extensive tracts of country in the latter. This is the case in so striking a degree, as to affect decidedly the temperature of the climate; and, while in Europe we are enabled to form a tolerably accurate idea of the degree of heat or cold in any particular district by ascertaining its latitude, the point of chief importance in America often consists in tracing the elevation of the surface of the ground. Throughout the equinoxial region of the new continent, particularly in the kingdoms of New Granada, Quito, and Mexico, the temperature of the atmosphere, its state of dryness or humidity, and the kind of cultivation followed by the inhabitants, all depend on the height of the situation. In our hemisphere, Swisserland, Savoy, and the Tyrol, are considered as very elevated countries: but the character of altitude applies only to groupes of mountains. Thus, while the summits of the Alps rise to ten and twelve thousand feet above the level of the sea, the neighbouring plains do not possess above a fifth part of that elevation: — but

'The table-land of Mexico is in general so little interrupted by vallies, and its declivity is so gentle, that as far as the city of Durango, in New Biscay, 140 leagues from Mexico, the surface is continually elevated from 1700 to 2700 metres * above the level of the neighbouring ocean. This is equal to the height of Mount Cenis, St. Gothard, or the Great St. Bernard.'—

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* A metre is about *equal to three feet* and a quarter.

'In South America, the Cordillera of the Andes exhibits at immense heights plains completely level. Such is the plain of 2565 metres elevation on which the city of Santa Fe de Bogota is built. Wheat, potatoes, and *chenopodium quinoa*, are there carefully cultivated. Such is also the plain of Caxamarea, in Peru, the ancient residence of the unfortunate Atahualpa, of 2750 metres elevation. The great plains of Antisana, in the middle of which rises the part of the volcano which penetrates the region of perpetual snow, are 4100 metres higher than the level of the ocean. These plains exceed in length the summit of the Pic of Teneriffe by 389 metres; and yet they are so level, that at the aspect of their natal soil, those who inhabit these countries have no suspicion of the extraordinary situation in which nature has placed them. But all the plains of New Grenada, Quito, or Peru, do not exceed forty square leagues. Of difficult access, and separated from one another by profound vallies, they are very unfavourable for the transport of goods and internal commerce. Crowning insulated summits, they form as it were islots in the middle of the aerial ocean. Those who inhabit these frozen plains remain concentrated there, and dread to descend into the neighbouring regions, where a suffocating heat prevails prejudicial to the primitive inhabitants of the higher Andes.

'In Mexico, however, the soil assumes a different aspect. Plains of a great extent, but of a surface no less uniform, are so approximated to one another, that they form but a single plain on the lengthened ridge of the Cordillera; such is the plain which runs from the 18° to the 40° of north latitude. Its length is equal to the distance from Lyons to the tropic of Cancer, which traverses the great African desert. This extraordinary plain appears to decline insensibly towards the north. No measurement, as we have already remarked, was ever made in New Spain beyond the city of Durango; but travellers observe that the ground lowers visibly towards New Mexico, and towards the sources of the Rio Colorado.'—

'In the Mexican provinces situated in the torrid zone, a space of 23,000 square leagues enjoys a cold rather than a temperate climate. All this great extent of country is traversed by the Cordillera of Mexico, a chain of colossal mountains which may be considered as a prolongation of the Andes of Peru. Notwithstanding their lowness in Choco, and the province of Darien, the Andes traverse the isthmus of Panama, and recover a considerable height in the kingdom of Guatimala. Sometimes their crest approaches the Pacific Ocean, at other times it occupies the centre of the country, and sometimes it approaches the gulf of Mexico.'—'Between the capital of Mexico, and the small cities of Xalappa and Cordoba, a groupe of mountains appears which rivals the most elevated summits of the new continent. It is enough to name four of these Colossi whose heights were unknown before my expedition; Popocatepetl, 17,716 feet; Iztaccihuatl, or the white woman, 15,700 feet; Citlaltepetl, or the Pic d'Orizaba, 17,371 feet; and Nauhcampatepetl, or the Cofre de Perote, 13,414 feet.'—

'We have remarked that the coasts alone of New Spain possess a warm climate adapted for the productions of the West Indies. These fertile regions, which the natives call *Tierras calientes*, produce in abundance sugar, indigo, cotton, and bananas. But when Europeans, not seasoned to the climate, remain in these countries for any time, particularly in populous cities, they become the abode of the yellow fever, known by the name of black vomiting, or *vomito prieto.* The port of Acapulco, and the vallies of Papagayo and Peregrino, are among the hottest and unhealthy places of the earth. On the eastern coast of New Spain, the great heats are occasionally interrupted by strata of cold air, brought by the winds from Hudson's Bay towards the parallels of the Havannah and Vera Cruz. These impetuous winds blow from October to March.

'On the declivity of the Cordillera, at the elevation of 12 or 1500 metres, there reigns perpetually a soft spring temperature, which never varies more than four or five degrees (seven or nine of Fahrenheit). The extremes of heat and cold are there equally unknown. The natives give to this region the name of *Tierras templadas*, in which the mean heat of the whole year is from 20° to 21° (68° to 70° Fahr.) Such is the fine climate of Xalappa, Tasco, and Chilpansingo, three cities celebrated for their great salubrity, and the abundance of fruit trees which grow in their neighbourhood. Unfortunately, this mean height of 1300 metres is the height to which the clouds ascend above the plains adjoining to the sea; from which circumstance these temperate regions, situated on the declivity (for example, the environs of the city of Xalappa), are frequently enveloped in thick fogs.

'It remains for us to speak of the third zone, known by the denomination of *Tierras frias.* It comprehends the plains elevated more than 2200 metres above the level of the ocean, of which the mean temperature is under 17°. (Fahr. 62°.) In the capital of Mexico, the centigrade thermometer has been known to fall several degrees below the freezing point; but this is a very rare phenomenon; and the winters are usually as mild there as at Naples. In the coldest season, the mean heat of the day is from 13° to 14°. (55° to 70° F.) In summer the thermometer never rises in the shade above 24°. (75° F.) The mean temperature of the whole table-land of Mexico is in general 17° (62 F.) which is equal to the temperature of Rome.'

'All these regions called cold enjoy a mean temperature of from 11° to 13°, (51° to 55 F.) equal to that of France and Lombardy. Yet the vegetation is less vigorous, and the European plants do not grow with the same rapidity as in their natal soil. The winters, at an elevation of 2500 metres, are not extremely rude; but the sun has not sufficient power in summer over the rarefied air of these plains to accelerate the developement of flowers, and to bring fruits to perfect maturity.'

In making a comparison between Mexico and the other divisions of the Spanish empire in America, we are induced to assign to the former by far the first rank in political importance. Its position is favourable for commerce both with Europe and with Asia; its population, though still in infancy, greatly exceeds that of the countries to the southward; and, however inferior it may be to the United States in the rapidity of its advancement to politica grandeur, it is superior in one point of no small importance to national tranquillity, we mean, an exemption from a multitude of slave-labourers. The whole number of these in New Spain falls short of ten thousand, while in the United States they exceed a million. On the other hand, it must be acknowleged that the mixed character of the population of New Spain, of which between two and three millions are aboriginal Indians, is, with a view to eventual discord in the state; a disadvantage of very serious consideration. With regard to the position of its metallic treasures, Mexico is much more favourably circumstanced than Peru. In the latter, the most considerable mines, as those of Potosi, Pasco, and Chota, are elevated almost as high as the region of perpetual snow; and in working them, men, provisions, and cattle, must all be brought from a distance. Habitations situated in districts in which water is subject to be frozen throughout all the year, and trees never vegetate, are ill calculated to attract inhabitants from more favoured regions: but in Mexico, the richest seams of silver are found in moderate elevations, and are consequently surrounded with cultivated fields, towns, and villages. In addition to all these advantages, the central position of Mexico admits the conveyance of a dispatch to Europe in the short space of five weeks, and, in an opposite direction, to the Philippine islands, in nearly the same time. The population of New Spain is probably between six and seven existence, notwithstanding, from the indolent habits of the Indians. Like the natives of Hindoostan, they are contented with the smallest quantity of aliment on which life can be supported, and scarcely extend their cultivation, whether of maize, potatoes, or wheat, farther than it is necessary for present consumption. A considerable number of hands, employed in the mines and in the transport of merchandise, depend for their subsistence on the labour of these rude agriculturists. Whenever, therefore, a great drought or any other cause has damaged a crop of maize, this country exhibits the afflicting spectacle of a scarcity, and of those epidemical diseases which never fail to follow in its train; a striking exemplification of the all-powerful operation of industry, that while we, in the comparatively barren regions of the north, have become almost strangers to the existence of famine, our fellow-creatures are exposed to periodical want under the torrid zone, where the germ of abundance seems every where scattered.

Another advantage over Peru, which is possessed by Mexico, consists in the treatment of the labourers in the mines. In Peru, the Indians are still subject to the barbarous law of the *Mita*, which compels them to remove from their homes to distant provinces for the purpose of toiling at the extraction of subterraneous treasure, and exposes them to a change of climate highly pernicious to constitutions which appear less fitted than the Europeans to support rapid transitions. In New Spain, at least during the last half century, the labour of the mines has become entirely free: no law compels the Indian to follow this kind of labour, nor to prefer one mine to another; and when he happens to be displeased with his master, he may repair to a different one with the same freedom which is exercised by a mechanic in Europe. Extensive as are the mines of Mexico, the total number of persons employed in them does not exceed 30,000; among whom the deaths are scarcely more numerous than among other classes of the population. The art of mining is in a state of progressive improvement, and machinery is gradually taking the place of bodily labour. It was the carriage of ponderous burdens from the bottom to the mouth of mines, which produced the exhaustion of the constitution in a greater degree than the continuance of subterraneous labour, or the amalgamation of the minerals above ground. The investment of capital in mining has for many ages been accounted a hazardous undertaking; and the Baron de Humboldt gives (p.226.) a striking picture of the extensive gains and losses with which it is attended. We are disposed, however, to infer that the working of the old established mines is productive of that regular but limited profit, which almost always follows a free competition in trade; while the revolutions of fortune are confined to new speculations, undertaken, as speculations often are, in a remote and unknown territory.

We were curious to learn the author's opinion in regard to a point which has of late been greatly canvassed; the practicability of a canal through the American isthmus, to connect the Atlantic with the Pacific ocean. The lake of Nicaragua has been mentioned by several projectors as likely to afford facility to the execution of this plan: but it appears (Vol. i. p. 24.) that the nature of the ground through which it would be necessary to cut is very little known; and even if no serious difficulty of this description occurred, considerable objections arise from the periodical storms along the coast. The isthmus of Panama, though marked out during three centuries as the spot for a navigable canal, has never been surveyed with sufficient accuracy. M. de Humboldt acknowleges the facilities presented by the river Chagre, but is greatly at a loss to determine the nature of the ground from Cruces, the spot at which that river ceases to be navigable to the Pacific ocean. He is, however, strongly impressed with the difficulties of forming a canal in this quarter, and seems inclined to give a preference to the more easy but less commodious expedient of causeways. From the port of Cupica, situated on the Pacific ocean to the south-east of Panama, the country is nearly level for several leagues inland, till we reach a navigable river which flows into the Atlantic. Here, though at the expence of a considerable circuit, it would be possible to establish a communication by water between the two seas. The author justly ridicules the vulgar notion of a great difference of altitude between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans, and is inclined to think that it cannot, at the utmost, exceed twenty feet. It has been common in all ages to imagine that, of two neighbouring seas, the one was much higher than the other; a notion founded merely on ocular impressions, than which nothing is more fallacious in the computation of levels.

The troubles on the continent of Europe, and the disturbed state of Ireland, have led during the present age to considerable emigrations to America, and particularly to the United States. The increase of population, however, to the transatlantic hemisphere, from this cause, is small, and even insignificant, when placed in comparison with the rapid augmentation of the settled inhabitants. We are disposed to think that the estimate of ten thousand considerably exceeds the average arrival of strangers throughout the whole of the United States; and we have the authority of M. de Humboldt, (p. 128.) that Mexico does not receive one-tenth of that number;—a trifling proportion of that annual increase which is computed to lead to a doubling of the whole population in twenty-five years. The aboriginal Indians form nearly two-fifths of the inhabitants of Mexico, and partake, in a considerable degree, of the progressive augmentations. The tradition of the early reduction of their numbers by Spanish oppression appears, as far as it regards the continent at least, to have been greatly exaggerated. M. de H. describes at some length the manners and character of the Indians; and the part which treats of this subject will, we are induced to think, possess considerable interest for our readers:

'The Indians of New Spain bear a general resemblance to those who inhabit Canada, Florida, Peru, and Brasil. They have the same swarthy and copper colour, flat and smooth hair, small beard, squat body, long eye, with the corner directed upwards towards the temples, prominent cheek bones, thick lips, and an expression of gentleness in the mouth, strongly contrasted with a gloomy and severe look. The American race, after the hyperborean race, is the least numerous; but it occupies the greatest space on the globe. Over a million and a half of square leagues, from the Terra del Fuego islands to the river St. Laurence and Baring's straits, we are struck at the first glance with the general resemblance in the features of the inhabitants. We think we perceive that they all descend from the same stock, notwithstanding the enormous diversity of language which separates them from one another. However, when we reflect more seriously on this family likeness, after living longer among the indigenous Americans, we discover that celebrated travellers, who could only observe a few individuals on the coasts, have singularly exaggerated the analogy of form among the Americans.' — 'An European, when he decides on the great resemblance among the copper-coloured races, is subject to a particular illusion. He is struck with a complexion so different from our own, and the uniformity of this complexion conceals for a long time from him the diversity of individual features. The new colonist can hardly at first distinguish the indigenous, because his eyes are less fixed on the gentle melancholic or ferocious expression of the countenance than on the red coppery colour and dark luminous and coarse and glossy hair, so glossy indeed that we should believe it to be in a constant state of humectation.'—

'Those Europeans who have sailed on the great rivers Orinoco and Amazons, and have had occasion to see a great number of tribes assembled under the monastical hierarchy in the missions, must have observed that the American race contains nations whose features differ as essentially from one another, as the numerous varieties of the race of Caucasus, the Circassians, Moors, and Persians differ from one another.'—

'The Indians of New Spain have a more swarthy complexion than the inhabitants of the warmest climates of South America. This fact is so much the more remarkable, as in the race of Caucasus, which may be also called the European Arab race, the people of the south have not so fair a skin as those of the north. Though many of the Asiatic nations who inundated Europe in the sixth century had a very dark complexion, it appears, however, that the shades of colour observable among the white race are less owing to their origin or mixture than to the local influence of the climate. This influence appears to have almost no effect on the Americans and negroes.—We found the people of the Rio Negro swarthier than those of the Lower Orinoco, and yet the banks of the first of these rivers enjoy a much cooler climate than the more northern regions. In the forests of Guiana, especially near the sources of the Orinoco, are several tribes of a whitish complexion, the Guaicas, Guajaribs, and Arigues. Yet these tribes have never mingled with Europeans, and are surrounded with other tribes of a dark brown hue. The Indians in the torrid zone who inhabit the most elevated plains of the Cordillera of the Andes, and those who under the 45° of south latitude live by fishing among the islands of the archipelago of Chonos, have as coppery a complexion as those who under a burning climate cultivate bananas in the narrowest and deepest vallies of the equinoxial region. We every where perceive that the colour of the American depends very little on the local position in which we see him. The Mexicans are more swarthy than the Indians of Quito and New Grenada, who inhabit a climate completely analogous; and we even see that the tribes dispersed to the north of the Rio Gila are less brown than those in the neighbourhood of the kingdom of Guatimala. This deep colour continues to the coast nearest to Asia.'—

'The Mexicans, particularly those of the Aztec and Otomite race, have more beard than I ever saw in any other Indians of South America. Almost all the Indians in the neighbourhood of the capital wear small mustachios; and this is even a mark of the tributary cast. These mustachios, which modern travellers have also found among the inhabitants of the north-west coast of America, are so much the more curious, as celebrated naturalists have left the question undetermined, whether the Americans have naturally no beard and no hair on the rest of their bodies, or whether they pluck them carefully out. Without entering here into physiological details, I can affirm that the Indians who inhabit the torrid zone of South America have generally some beard; and that this beard increases when they shave themselves. But many individuals are born entirely without beard or hair on their bodies.'—

'However, this apparent want of beard is by no means peculiar to the American race; for many hordes of Eastern Asia, and especially several tribes of African negroes, have so little beard that we should be almost tempted to deny entirely its existence. The negroes of Congo and the Caribs, two eminently robust races, and frequently of a colossal stature, prove that to look upon a beardless chin as a sure sign of the degeneration and physical weakness of the human species is a mere physiological dream.'—

'The Indians of New Spain, those at least subject to the European domination, generally attain a pretty advanced age. Peaceable cultivators, and collected these six hundred years in villages, they are not exposed to the accidents of the wandering life of the hunters and warriors of the Mississippi and the savannas of the Rio Gila. Accustomed to uniform nourishment of an almost entirely vegetable nature, that of their maize and cereal gramina, the Indians would undoubtedly attain a very great longevity if their constitution were not weakened by drunkenness. Their intoxicating liquors are rum, a fermentation of maize and the root of the jatropha, and especially the wine of the country, made of the juice of the agave americana, called *pulque*.' — 'The vice of drunkenness is, however, less general among the Indians than is generally believed. Those Europeans who have travelled to the east of the Alleghany mountains, between the Ohio and the Missoury, will with difficulty believe that, in the forests of Guiana, and on the banks of the Orinoco, we saw Indians who shewed an aversion for the brandy which we made them taste. There are several Indian tribes, very sober, whose fermented beverages are too weak to intoxicate.'—

'It is by no means uncommon to see in Mexico, in the temperate zone half way up the Cordillera, natives, and especially women, reach a hundred years of age. This old age is generally comfortable; for the Mexican and Peruvian Indians preserve their muscular strength to the last.'—

'The copper-coloured Indians enjoy one great physical advantage, which is undoubtedly owing to the great simplicity in which their ancestors lived for thousands of years. They are subject to almost no deformity. I never saw a hunch-backed Indian; and it is extremely rare to see any of them who squint, or are lame in the arm or leg.'

This account of the physical character of the Indians is followed by observations on their moral constitution:

'We perceive in the Mexican Indian neither that mobility of sensation, gesture, or feature, nor that activity of mind for which several nations of the equinoxial regions of Africa are so advantageously distinguished. There cannot exist a more marked contrast than that between the impetuous vivacity of the Congo negro, and the apparent flegm of the Indian. From a feeling of this contrast the Indian women not only prefer the negroes to the men of their own race, but also to the Europeans. The Mexican Indian is grave, melancholic, and silent, so long as he is not under the influence of intoxicating liquors. This gravity is particularly remarkable in Indian children, who at the age of four or five display much more intelligence and maturity than white children. The Mexican loves to throw a mysterious air over the most indifferent actions. The most violent passions are never painted in his features; and there is something frightful in seeing him pass all at once from absolute repose to a state of violent and unrestrained agitation. The Peruvian Indian possesses more gentleness of manners; the energy of the Mexican degenerates into harshness. These differences may have their origin in the different religions and different governments of the two countries in former times.'—

'The Americans, like the Hindoos and other nations who have long groaned under a civil and military despotism, adhere to their customs, manners, and opinions, with extraordinary obstinacy. I say opinions, for the introduction of Christianity has produced almost no other effect on the Indians of Mexico, than to substitute new ceremonies, the symbols of a gentle and humane religion, to the ceremonies of a sanguinary worship. This change from old to new rites was the effect of constraint and not of persuasion, and was produced by political events alone.'—

'Accustomed to a long slavery, as well under the domination of their own sovereigns as under that of the first conquerors, the natives of Mexico patiently suffer the vexations to which they are frequently exposed from the whites. They oppose to them only a cunning, veiled under the most deceitful appearances of apathy and stupidity. As the Indian can very rarely revenge himself on the Spaniards, he delights in making a common cause with them for the oppression of his own fellow citizens. Harassed for ages, and compelled to a blind obedience, he wishes to tyrannize in his turn. The Indian villages are governed by magistrates of the copper-coloured race; and an Indian alcalde exercises his power with so much the greater severity, because he is sure of being supported by the priest or the *Spanish subdelegado*. Oppression produces every where the same effects, it every where corrupts the morals.

'As the Indians almost all of them belong to the class of peasantry and low people, it is not so easy to judge of their aptitude for the arts which embellish life. I know no race of men who appear more destitute of imagination. When an Indian attains a certain degree of civilization, he displays a great facility of apprehension, a judicious mind, a natural logic, and a particular disposition to subtilize or seize the finest differences in the comparison of objects. He reasons coolly and orderly, but he seldom manifests versatility of imagination.'—

'The music and dancing of the natives partake of this want of gaiety which characterises them. M. Bonpland and myself observed the same thing in all South America. Their songs are terrific and melancholic. The Indian women show more vivacity than the men; but they share the usual misfortunes of the servitude to which the sex is condemned among nations where civilization is in its infancy. The women take no share in the dancing; but they remain present to offer fermented draughts to the dancers, prepared by their own hands.

'The Mexicans have preserved a particular relish for painting, and for the art of carving in wood, or stone. We are astonished at what they are able to execute with a bad knife on the hardest wood.'—'They have preserved the same taste for flowers which Cortez found in his time. A nosegay was the most valuable treat which could be made to the ambassadors who visited the court of Montezuma. The taste for flowers undoubtedly indicates a relish for the beautiful; and we are astonished at finding it in a nation in which a sanguinary worship and the frequency of sacrifices appeared to have extinguished whatever related to the sensibility of the soul, and kindness of affection. In the great market-place of Mexico the native sells no peaches, nor ananas, nor roots, nor pulque (the fermented juice of the agave), without having his shop ornamented with flowers, which are every day renewed. He appears seated in an intrenchment of verdure. A hedge of a metre in height, formed of fresh herbs, particularly of gramina with delicate leaves, surrounds like a semicircular wall the fruits offered to public sale. The bottom, of a smooth greeen, is divided by garlands of flowers which run parallel to one another. Small nosegays placed symmetrically between the festoons give this inclosure the appearance of a carpet strewn with flowers.'

[*To be continued.*]

Art. III. *Essays, Biographical, Critical, and Historical, illustrative of the Rambler, Adventurer, and Idler*; and of the various periodical Papers which, in Imitation of the Writings of Steele and Addison, have been published between the close of the Eighth Volume of the Spectator, and the Commencement of the Year 1809. By Nathan Drake, M. D. Author of Literary Hours, and of Essays on the Tatler, Spectator, and Guardian. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. pp. 499. and 503. 1l. 1s. Boards. Suttaby.

THE hope which we expressed, at the conclusion of our last critique on Dr. Drake's lucubrations, — that he would pursue the design there commenced, and furnish us with illustrations of the Rambler, Adventurer, and Idler, similar to the essays on the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, — has been fully answered by the publication of the agreeable volumes now before us. We considered the Doctor as an improving writer, in the review to which we allude; and we have now to record a very creditable proof of his advancement. Not that we are yet satisfied on many occasions of his freedom from affectation of manner, of his just discrimination between the merits of different authors on many others, nor of his having thoroughly cured (we speak *actively*, in deference to the Doctor's profession,) his general propensity to attach a disproportionate value to the peculiar objects of his present consideration. These faults and foibles are still, we think, discoverable in his writings: but we do not hesitate, on the whole, to recommend his Essays on the periodical papers of this country, for fulness and accuracy of detail, as an unique work of the kind; and to mention the volumes before us as the best which have proceeded from the pen of their amusing writer.

We do not know that we could compress the account which the author gives of the plan of these essays, into less compass than that in which he offers it himself; and we therefore shall transcribe the whole of his short preface; reserving our remarks on this table of contents (for it rather deserves that name than the former) to the examination of each article as it occurs:

'The plan of these volumes being, in several respects, different from that which was adopted for the Essays on the *Tatler*, *Spectator*, and *Guardian*, I have thought it necessary to place before the reader, in this preface, a connected view of its construction.

'It is divided, as in the former work, into five *Parts*, and these parts into *Essays*; but, for the purpose of compression, the Dissertations on Style, Humour, Ethics, &c. instead of being given in separate essays, are interwoven with the biographical branch.

'So numerous have been the biographies and anecdotes of Dr. Johnson, that, with regard to the occurrences of his *life* and *conversation*, nothing new can be expected. But, when he is considered merely in the capacity of a man of letters, the field is still open for novelty of remark and variety of illustration. I have, therefore, chiefly confined myself to the contemplation of his *Literary Character*, into which I have entered, I trust, more fully than will be found in any preceding work. The arrangement, too, which has been chosen for the narrative, has not, I have reason to think, been anticipated, and removes the monotony resulting from a close adherence to chronological order. The capital work, for instance, in every province of literature which he embellished, is seized, as it occurs, in the progress of his career, for the foundation of a full consideration of whatever, at any period of his life, he produced under each department.

'In this mode his powers and productions as a Poet, a Bibliogra-

'PART IV.

'Essay 1. Observations on the Periodical Papers which were written during the publication of the Rambler, Adventurer, and Idler.—Essay 2. Observations on the Periodical Papers which have been published between the Close of the Idler and the present period. —Essay 3. The same concluded.

'PART V.

'Essay. Conclusion of the whole Work. Table of Periodical Papers from the year 1709 to the year 1809, being the completion of a Century from the commencement of the Tatler.'

On this last head, we cannot help first observing that the author mentions a very curious fact; viz. that 'between the Tatler and Rambler, a period of forty-one years, one hundred and six periodical papers were printed; and that between the Rambler and April 1809, a period of fifty-nine years, exactly a like number has been published; consequently, however prolific we may conceive the present age to be in works of this description, it must evidently yield, in point of rapidity and fertility of production, to the prior half of the last century.' (Vol. ii. p. 498.)

Seven papers are added to the latter list in an appendix:—these had not been known to the Doctor previously to the printing of his second volume; and his subsequent mention of them is a testimony (if it were wanting) of his industry and closeness of research, on the subject which he has chosen to illustrate. They take away, however, scarcely any thing from the strangeness of the fact above mentioned. That the first half of the 18th century should have produced more periodical works than the last is a phænomenon with which, we believe, few of our readers were acquainted; and as we are not quite pleased with any explanation of the causes of it which at present occurs to our minds, we shall decline the task of *selecting an hypothesis*, and proceed to analyze the stores of information which Dr. Drake has so amply afforded.

Among the twenty-six papers which appeared during the publication of the Tatler, Spectator, and Guardian, 'not one,' observes the Doctor, 'can be read with any degree of interest or pleasure except the Lay Monastery; and even this small volume is so neglected and obscure that it is now procured with much difficulty.' The chief writer in this ephemeral work was Sir Richard Blackmore—a name of portentous aspect!—enough, we should conceive, in after-times to condemn any collection of professedly entertaining essays; and even among his contemporaries certain not to secure general favour. The "Lay Monastery," accordingly, was never popular, and only in one peculiarity, perhaps, transcended its numerous companions, the feeble rivals of the superior productions of Addison and Steele.—In imitation of the dramatic plan of the Spectator,

> ' Sir Richard' (as Dr. Drake observes,) ' has formed a club consisting of six characters, who, retiring to a house in the country, assemble twice a week for the purpose of reading and discussing the merits of various essays, of their own composition, on literature and manners. This select fraternity consists of a Mr. Johnson, a gentleman of great genius, erudition, and accomplishments; of Dr. Lacon, a physician; of Sir Eustace Locker, whose favourite studies are metaphysics and theology; of Sir Arthur Wimbleton, a widower, a man of uncommon beneficence and humanity; of Ned Freeman, a compound of gallantry, good humour, and classical elegance; and of Mr. Ravenscroft, the secretary, the history of whose eventful life is given in the third number. Of these personages, five owe their existence to Sir Richard Blackmore; and the sixth, the portrait of Ned Freeman, is the conception of Mr. Hughes.'

Of the fifty-six papers which came out between the close of the eighth volume of the Spectator, and the Rambler, the best on political subjects (which engross about one-third of the number) are, according to Dr. Drake, "Cato's Letters," "The Craftsman," "Common Sense," and the "True Patriot."—'Of the miscellaneous essays, the most valuable are the "Free thinker," the "Universal Spectator," the "Grub-street Journal," "The Champion," "The Female Spectator," and "The Student."—In a class of an inferior kind, but of which some few parts merit a rescue from oblivion, are to be arranged the "Censor," the "Plain Dealer," the "Humourist," "Terræ Filius *," the "Fool," and the "Selections from Mist's and Fog's Journal."'

From the "Plain-dealer," a paper conducted by Aaron Hill and W. Bond, we shall copy Dr. Drake's quotation; because it affords a curious example of that opposition which "the froward retainers of customs," (as Lord Bacon calls them,) ever make to useful innovation. We subjoin the Doctor's remarks, as a favourable specimen of his style of thinking and writing:

> ' The thirtieth number of the Plain Dealer, which contains an eulogium on Inoculation, and on its benevolent introducer Lady M. W. Montague, gives a curious detail of the prejudices and opposition which it had to encounter. "With what violence and malice," remarks the author, "has it not been railed at, and opposed?—How many false affirmations have we seen, with unblushing boldness, insulting truth in our public newspapers!—Nay, the pulpits, too, have

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* This intemperate production of Nicholas Amhurst bears date 1721. Mr. Colman's few papers of the same name appeared in 1765.

ut the common arguments, however despicable, give me diver-
d entertainment. When I hear a pious old woman wisely
ing, *what this world would come to!* and concluding her re-
vith the great maxim of resignation, that *God's own time is*
compare this force of female reasoning, to the representation
a late writer tells us, the old *Boyars*, or Grandees of *Russia*,
made to the present Czar, when he attempted a communi-
by digging a canal, between the Volga and the Tanais. *The*
they said, *was great*;—But they humbly conceived it *impious*;
since God had made the rivers to run one way, man ought not
them another."

opposition equally violent, though not founded upon rea-
quite so ludicrous, is, in the present day, formed against a
re salutary inoculation, that of the Cow-pox.

every improvement, indeed, however great and important, there
ally been opposed a host of prejudices, the removal of which
considerable address, and much patience and perseverance.
ntrovertible, however, is now the nature of the evidence in
of vaccination, that it becomes an imperious duty on the part
rnment and individuals, to promote, to the utmost of their
its extension and utility. One important step to this effect,
blishment of the Royal Jennerian Society, has already, under
tion of the highest authority in the kingdom, been carried
ecution. More, however, remains to be done before we can
ulate our country on the probability of beholding the com-
tinction of variolous contagion. A *second*, and most power-
1, would be, *the interdiction of the practice of inoculation for*
ll-Pox throughout the British Empire; a practice which, if
edily superseded by authority, must necessarily, from the
g prejudices of individuals, for a long period keep alive the
f a most loathsome and destructive plague. A *third*, and

propagating in its favour, cannot *now* be neglected without a violation of piety, of sympathy, and affection.'

Having brought down his list to the "Rambler[*]," (in 1750) our historian, biographer, and critic, pauses in his humbler labours, and attempts the difficult task of giving something like novelty to the literary life of Dr. Johnson. We question whether the nice point on which he rests his claims to such novelty, and which we have quoted in his preface, be not a distinction without a difference from other lives of the great moralist. Hawkins, Boswell, and Murphy, have all dwelt on the principal productions of their hero with sufficient fullness; and the mere circumstance of considering his peculiar powers in separate provinces of literature, when his first work in that province is recorded, instead of generally summing up his literary character at the close of his career, is a variation of no great consequence. As to the moral character of Johnson, we scarcely know any writer who has steered more judiciously between the extravagant praise of his friends and the severe censure of his enemies than Dr. Drake. We would recommend our readers, then, to become acquainted with this additional biography of Johnson; although we should be right in our opinion that it contains not those attractions of novelty to which it pretends. Two little compositions, indeed, it adds to the scanty list of the Doctor's poetical pieces; compositions which had escaped the notice of every editor of Johnson's works, which we had often heard repeated in conversation, but which we never saw in print until they were published in a work (noticed by us with due praise) intitled, "Translations from the Greek Anthology [†]." From this volume Dr. Drake copies them; and as they are now before the public in at least two different shapes, we shall decline to transcribe them. The lines from the Medea of Euripides, contrasted (as they are by Dr. D.) with an imitation of the same passage by Joseph Warton, exhibit the force of Johnson's language in an eminent degree. Warton, too, has been very successful, and displays as much sweetness as Johnson manifests strength in this short effusion. The other little piece is a Greek tetrastic, 'which the Doctor had formed and condensed from his own Latin epitaph on Goldsmith.'—We must not conclude this brief account of Dr. Drake's very ample 'Literary Life of Johnson,' without observing that his remarks on the style of the Rambler, as compared with that of other popular productions, are extremely amusing, and to the youthful reader may be very instructive. We should also add that a great mass of miscellaneous information is contained in this portion of the 'Essays;' and that the lover of domestic literature has here a rich banquet provided for his entertainment. At present, we have not an opportunity of discussing at large some of the points of criticism and taste in which we differ from the Doctor: but we must not omit to state that his classification of English poets (page 448, &c. vol. i.) is very unsatisfactory to our minds, particularly where he says 'that the *first class*,' he thinks, 'will not require much revision,' when he places in that class *Dunbar* and *Cowper!* The Doctor, in truth, does not seem to be as much improved in his poetical taste as in his prose-composition. For instance,—as far as the critic can be judged from the author,— let us examine 'a single stanza, the birth and exultation of the moment,' (as the Doctor expresses it,) on the Spanish Patriots:

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[*] A work of this name, of which only one number is extant, (in the British Museum,) appeared in 1712.

[†] See Rev. Vol. 54. N. S. p. 370.

> 'Who is he, rising 'mid the thunder of the storm,
> Rejoicing in the greatness of his might?
> It is Liberty!—he, majestic in his form,
> He, glorying in the plenitude of light:
> Gigantic is his step, resistless is his course,
> Yea, matchless are the workings of his hands!
> Hark! thy people shout, Iberia, with tremendous force
> Thy armed nations shout along the lands:
> They bless thy presence, Liberty!'

'The Literary Life of Dr. Hawkesworth' is a well digested and interesting little performance; in which the various qualities of that writer's mind (sufficiently if not thoroughly learned as he was) are distinguished by his biographer in a judicious and candid manner. The cloud that was cast over his latter days, by his unfortunate errors in the "Collection of Voyages," is faithfully represented, but with a degree of tenderness to established reputation which does credit to the heart of the author.—'That Hawkesworth ever *meant*, by his doubts, queries, and descriptions, to shock belief, or inflame the passions, cannot be admitted:' — such is Dr. Drake's opinion; and we would not wish to see it invalidated, even if stronger grounds for the degrading supposition existed than really can be produced. On the whole, we know few biographical sketches which deserve a better character than the foregoing.

The occasional contributors to the Rambler, Adventurer, and Idler, next demand the attention of this biographer and critic. 'The assistance which Dr. Johnson received in the composition of his Rambler amounted (with the exception of the four billets in No. 10. written by Mrs. Chapone, and the second letter in No. 107.) only to four numbers; the productions of Miss Talbot, Mr. Richardson, and Mrs. Carter' Of these three contributors we have a sufficient account. No. 30. was the composition of Miss T.; No. 97. of Richardson, and we have heard also No. 102.*; and Numbers 44. and 100., of Mrs. Carter. The biography of this last lady, and that of Richardson, are lively compilations from previous works on the same subjects. The Doctor, in fact, is a very first-rate compiler; and Mrs. Barbauld and Mr. Pennington lose nothing in his hands:

> 'The associates of Hawkesworth and Johnson in the composition of the Adventurer were not numerous. Bathurst, Warton, Chapone, and Colman, form the list of those whose papers are acknowledged. On the authority of Dr. Johnson, however, we have to add, that the Honourable Hamilton Boyle was a contributor to the Adventurer; but among the small number of papers which have no signature, the property of this gentleman has never been ascertained. We may also mention, that to the Rev. Richard Jago we are indebted for the copy of verses in N° thirty-seven.'

Bathurst contributed Numbers 3, 6, 9, 19, 23, 25, 35, 43.; Warton, (Joseph) twenty-four papers; for the numbers, and subjects of which, (as well as of the preceding) we refer our readers to Dr. Drake. The four billets written by Mrs. Chapone in the Rambler are to be found in No. 10; and her contributions to the Adventurer consist of the story of Fidelia in Numbers 77, 8, and 9. — Much pleasant literary chit-chat is scattered through the lives of these respective writers. The biography of Colman is reserved for the account of the *Connoisseur*: but it is stated that the vision in No. 90. is the only assistance which he lent to the Adventurer; and, though written at the early age of twenty, it 'may rank with the first papers in that elegant work.'

The coadjutors of Johnson in the Idler (whose names are known) were Thomas Warton, Sir Joshua Reynolds, and Bennet Langton. Warton wrote Numbers 33, 93, and 96. Sir Joshua contributed an equal portion, Numbers 76, 79, and 82. Mr. Langton was the author of No. 67. Johnson however acknowleges the contribution of twelve: so that five numbers of the Idler are yet unappropriated.

During and between the publication of the Rambler, the Adventurer, and the Idler, not fewer than twenty papers, independently of the essays of Johnson, were candidates for public favour. Of these, by far the most distinguished are the World and the Connoisseur. Their authors, consequently, engross s us some account, and of several a very full and enter- history. The biographical sketches, indeed, will be ly considered as the most valuable part of these volumes:

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* It has been said likewise that the second letter in No. 15. was not the production of Johnson's pen.

most singular feature in the conduct and composition of the sseur, which was published under the fictitious name of Mr. Critic and Censor-General, is, that the two projectors, and ntire writers of the work, Colman and Thornton, not con- h the customary mode of contributing their respective numbers, o intimately in the composition of *each* essay, and so assimi- eir styles and manners that it is now impossible for the critic riminate their peculiar property. It has been said, indeed, . Colman, during the latter part of his life, was no more able readers to distinguish his own share in the joint production.'

the small corps of volunteers,' observes the author, 'who d under the banners of Colman and Thornton, only five itherto been revealed, namely the Earl of Corke, the nd John Duncombe, William Cowper, Esq. Mr. Robert and Orator Henley.'

ee Numbers have been attributed to Cowper, on his own ity, viz. 119, 134, and 138. 'It is highly probable,' adds ctor, that Numbers 111, and 115. are also from his pen;' a pen, assuredly, when writing prose, as that of almost sayist.—That extraordinary genius, Robert Lloyd, can considered in the light of a poetical assistant to the isseur.

he papers published between the close of the Idler and sent period, the most meritorious are decidedly the Mirror,

are to be added, as occasional correspondents, Mr. Richard
Lord Hailes, Mr. Fraser Tytler, (now Lord Woodhouse
Dr. Beattie, Mr. David Hume, nephew to the Histo
Mr. Gordon, and Mr. Strahan. Two papers, Nos. 23, an
were communicated by persons unknown; and parts lik
of Nos. 9, 79, and 89, have not hitherto been claimed.

The Lounger, with the exception of only three or
essays, was written by the members and correspondents
Mirror-Club. It may, then, be considered as a continuat
their first work; and, as Dr. Drake observes, (we think,
with the exception of two or three of the deeply inte
stories of the Mirror, the Lounger might be shewn to b
equal, in all the requisites for popular instruction or ent
ment, to its pleasing predecessor.

"For every page and paragraph of the Observer," (sa
Cumberland *himself*) except what is avowed quotation,
singly responsible." *Longè absit*, that we should inti
suspicion of plagiarism against the memory of an ex
writer, who, when alive, was so tenderly *alive* to a charge
nature. Though the sole labour of an individual, the 'O
is rich in variety both of subject and manner,' as our go
moured critic remarks; and with the citation of this opini
must bid him adieu: omitting to specify the sundry rem
instances of false taste in his style to which we alluded in
terms at the beginning of this article; and assuring our
that the *skeleton* of Dr. Drake's work, with which we ha
sented them, gives but an inadequate idea of the plumpn
agreeable expression of its full and entire figure.—We
just admonish the Doctor, at parting, that several mi
disfigure his volumes; and we would particularly reque
to correct (in his 2d edition, which we doubt not we s
in proper season) the following passage, page 215. Vo
'It is said, "Men of genius are melancholy"— omn*es*
o*sus* melanchol*icos*.'—This error has rather a ludicrous e

ART. IV. *Théorie des Peines*, &c. i. e. The Theory of Puni
and Rewards. By Jeremy Bentham, Esq. Barrister at Law,
in French according to his Manuscripts. By Stephen D
of Geneva. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. sewed. Dulau a
London. 1811.

IT was impossible for settled times to arrive, and for p
phy to pervade the department of the law, without e
en[illegible] perſons becoming sensible to the discordance of
[illegible] ith our civil code; and having perceived it, ma

have lost all the antipathy which he feels towards injustice and gross incongruity, before he could remain quiescent in this state of things. Accordingly, the benevolence and the humanity of the British public were soothed by the intelligence that an individual of very great abilities, and of high rank in the law, was employed in preparing alterations for correcting the deformities of our criminal code; and while this expectation was pending, the admirable Commentator on the Laws of England, who in the course of his grand undertaking had found occasion to consider this subject deeply and largely, spoke the language of justice and humanity in regard to it, with a warmth and force which were scarcely to be expected from a person of his extraordinary caution.

The particulars which "want revision and amendment, have," according to the very able Commentator, "chiefly arisen from too scrupulous an adherence to some rules of the antient common law, when the reasons have ceased on which those rules are founded; from not repealing such of the old penal laws as are either obsolete or absurd; and from too little care and attention in passing new ones." The latter, we believe, is the principal source of the evil; so that the proposed form goes not to innovate on the ordinances of antient wisdom, but to remedy the errors of modern inconsiderateness.

This learned Commentator, having pointed out some provisions in the criminal code which we shall not scruple to call enormities, and which the courtly lawyer himself denominates outrageous penalties, observes, in opposition to a profusion of modern reasoning, that the rare infliction of them rather aggravates the mischief. "They cannot," he adds, "but occur to the observation of any one who has undertaken the task of examining the great outlines of the English law, and tracing them up to their principles; and it is the duty of such an one to hint them with decency to those, whose abilities and stations enable them to apply the remedy." Nobody will suspect the able Commentator of going out of his way to set up as a reformer, or causelessly to throw out any thing in disparagement of the laws of England. He alleges that these provisions *force themselves upon him*, as he himself states; that his *hinting them is a matter of duty*; that it was a sort of service, every body knows, which he did not court, and which was not congenial to him.—Nothing can more enhance the weight of this testimony, and a testimony of higher competence cannot be found; it is that of the ablest expositor and warmest panegyrist of the laws whose amendment he recommends; and yet it has been said that to follow in this career is highly mischievous!

Mr. Justice Blackstone, in adverting, if we can trust our memory, to the difficulty of correcting the defects and imperfections of the law, observes that those who have leisure for the task are not the best qualified, and that those who are so qualified have not leisure. It has happened fortunately in the present day that one who stands without a superior in the first rank of the law, and whom no one disputes to be equal to its highest stations, sacrificing his pittance of leisure, and encountering the obloquy of appearing as a reformer, has volunteered that service to his country, to the laws, and to justice, which the learned judge has pointed out as of such difficult attainment. — This desideratum having been obtained in the cause of equity and humanity, it is a matter of grievous disappointment and of no small surprize that a formidable obstacle to the desired reform has arisen, wholly out of the contemplation of the celebrated Commentator. That learned person, on the same occasion, said that, if criminal enactments had been referred to the judges, and their report taken upon them, our code would not have exhibited some of the deformities which belonged to it. What, then, would have been his surprize had he lived at this day, on finding that the alterations in the same code which he had deemed it his duty to hint to those whose abilities and stations enabled them to apply the remedy, and which, originating in such high authority, were now hailed by an enlightened public, supported by a constellation of abilities, and opposed by nothing in the shape of argument, and by little in the way of authority, were resisted by the learned Bench, and their unanimous suffrage delivered in favour of this code in its dread entirety, by the mouth of their chief, who reported it in a temper and language worthy of the commission with which he was intrusted!

However extraordinary and formidable this opposition may be, and however much to be regretted, we take the liberty of expressing our hope, prizing as we do the cause of justice and humanity above every other consideration, that these momentous matters will not cease to be discussed in and out of Parliament, until the merits of this great question are fully laid open; in which case, we have no doubt of living to see all the sanguinary statutes, like those which lately regulated the abominable traffic in human beings, disappearing from a code which they have so long disgraced. For this service, so worthy of a high genius and of distinguished integrity, we look up to the gentleman who has already deserved so well of the public in this respect; and who, report says, is not less distinguished for proper perseverance and steadiness in all that he undertakes, is the same reason for consulting their interest as that of others. Their welfare is proportionably the welfare of the community, their evil its evil.' We repress, however, the considerations of this kind which crowd so thickly on us, and beg pardon of our readers for in any degree indulging in them; which it was not our intention to have done, being fully aware that in no instance shall we more consult their interest by being sparing of our own remarks and observations, and exhibiting, as much as may be, the editor and author, *propriis personis*.

The editor's good faith is equal to his talents and his judgment; and his preface is as able and impartial a review of the work as can be penned. The matter is derived from the author, but owes its shape and form and life to the editor. All the excellence of style and manner which it possesses he has been careful not to throw away in aught that was unworthy of them. The labours of editing on the present occasion include that of reviewing; and so completely has this been executed, that nothing is left for us to do, except to observe that amplification and illustration are throughout these volumes very sparingly and sometimes perhaps not sufficiently introduced:—very rare faults, it must be owned, in modern productions! The subject of the first of these volumes is certainly not inviting; nor does the editor attempt either to conceal or deny the fault. He does not usher in the work of his author as a perfect production. He observes that, 'before we can come to such a decision *tout vu**. Amid many thoughts either vague or loose, and some that are erroneous, we meet with others which are judicious and profound, as in all that we have of this illustrious writer: but how far do his remarks fall short of a Theory of Punishments! This was not the principal object of his work, and nothing could be more unjust than to criticise him for not doing that which he had no intention to perform.

'In this career, Beccaria did more. He first examined the efficacy of punishments by their effects on the mind of the sufferer; and he submitted to calculation the force of the motives which impel the individual to the commission of crimes, and that of the counter-motives which law ought to oppose to them. This species of analysis was less the cause of this author's great success, than the courage with which he attacked long received errors, and that humane eloquence which diffuses a lively interest over his work: but he is wanting in method, follows no general principle, only touches the most important questions, and discreetly avoids those practical discussions, which would have discovered how little he knew of jurisprudence as a science. In his work, he professedly prosecutes two distinct objects, namely crimes and punishments; with them he occasionally blends process; and these three vast subjects with difficulty furnish him matter for a very slender volume. In the numerous writings on the same subject which have followed, I have not found one theory of punishments which fulfilled its promise, and which could serve as a general guide.'

M. Dumont observes that, in the former publication of Mr. Bentham, edited by him †, the Theory of Punishments was only sketched; and in regard to criminal law, it was, he says, the general map of a country, of which the topography is here presented. He informs us that, in order to avoid references, and to render the present work more complete in itself, he has borrowed some chapters from that performance: but that a new form has been given to them, and considerable additions made to them. The present volumes have not, we learn, been compiled wholly from manuscripts, but some of the parts have alſo been supplied from a pamphlet published by Mr. Bentham several years ago. That tract is, at present, we believe, very little known.—Having stated, with remarkable distinctness, the part which he has borne in the present production, the editor assures his readers 'that it is not his own work that he gives them, but, as completely as the nature of the thing would permit, the work of Mr. Bentham; and that the latter, having declined to execute any of the labour of the publication, because the revision would have taken more time than was consistent with his other occupations, he has authorized the Editor to state that the changes which he should have made would only have affected the form of the work: that in regard to its foundation, his sentiments have not changed: but, on the contrary, that time and reflection have added new force to them.'

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* Montesquieu said every thing, and abridged every thing, because he saw every thing.

† *Traités de Législation*, &c. See M. R. Vol. xxxix. N. S. p. 449. *Appendix.*

We have already mentioned M. Dumont's candid acknowlegement that the first of these volumes, however important may be its object, is by no means attractive. 'I have felt this myself,' he says, 'during my labours on it; and in order to persevere, I had often to struggle with myself. The reader must be content with a philosophical interest. A description and examination of punishments in a systematic series admits not of variety of style, and supplies no pictures to delight the imagination.' 'Happily,' he adds, 'the subject of rewards, which occupies the second of these volumes, conducts the reader through more agreeable paths by means of its novelty, and by the displays which it exhibits of virtue, of talents, and of services. He must be aware that, when he takes up these volumes, he enters on the Tartarus and the Elysium of legislation: but, if he enters Tartarus, it is in order to mitigate its torments.'

Volume I. is divided into five books. The first treats of general principles connected with punishments; the second considers punishments themselves, and discusses those which are corporal; the third relates to those punishments which the author denominates privative; the fourth, to punishments which he considers as misapplied; and the fifth, to complex punishments. So vigorous and original are the thinking powers of Mr. Bentham, that, while considering the subject even generally, and although following such men as Montesquieu and Beccaria, he strikes out several new roads which lead to important and useful discoveries. 'The notion generally entertained of punishment,' says Mr. B. 'is very clear, but not sufficiently definite, since it does not distinguish with precision the act of punishing, from many acts which in certain respects resemble it. The reason for stating all that is included in the act of punishing, is in order that we may see what it excludes.' To punish, in its most general sense, he defines to be 'to inflict an evil, having a direct intention in regard to such evil, by reason of some act which appeared to have been done or omitted.' 'Legal punishments' he defines to be 'evils inflicted according to juridical forms on individuals convicted of some injurious act forbidden by the law, with the intent of preventing like acts. This definition, besides the ideas contained in the notion of *punishment* in the abstract, includes the right of punishing, the

All punishments, the author justly observes, are a loss to the state, and create an expence at which it seeks to effect the prevention of crimes. He points to a very just distinction between the real and the apparent costs of punishments. ‘The *real* cost is the whole of the evil of punishment; the *apparent* is that which it holds in the estimation of the community; that which is occasioned by publicity and stage-effect.’ The apparent, as distinguished from the real, he considers ‘as being all profit.’ The *real* cost he would have as small and the *apparent* as great as possible: ‘but the real cost must be in part incurred, because without it there can be no apparent. Yet the apparent is the essential, since all that does not appear is lost, except for the delinquent himself.’ As an example of the apparent cost, he instances hanging in effigy.—He advances the following maxims with regard to the measure of punishment. ‘A punishment should appear to the mind at once in all its parts. It should be one which is easily recollected, and one of which the apparent exceeds the real cost.’—All that is said in this chapter, on the subject of public executions, is highly worthy of attention.

On the measure of punishments, also, we meet with many valuable and original observations. The author says that Montesquieu and Beccaria direct men to find the proportions between crimes and punishments, without themselves taking a single step for the attainment of that desirable end. ‘It is,’ he remarks, ‘no doubt an excellent maxim: but clothed, as it is left by them, in general terms, it is more edifying than instructive. Nothing has hitherto been done to shew in what this proportion consists; nor have any rules been given by which we may determine what punishments ought to be applied to particular crimes.’ In supplying this capital defect, the powers of Mr. Bentham for disquisitions of this nature appear in all their force.

He very properly combats the notion that the temptation to commit the offence ought to mitigate the punishment; and he states as his first rule, what is obviously indisputable, ‘that the evil of the punishment must outweigh the advantage promised by the crime.’ He secondly lays it down that, if the crime indicates a habit, ‘the profit of repeated commissions, and not of a single act, is to be set in the balance, in order to find the due measure of the punishment.’ He adds, thirdly, that, if the profit of the crime be certain and immediate, ‘the evil of the punishment must be enhanced in order to counterbalance its delay and uncertainty.’ The observations of the author on the certainty of punishments, and the importance of their following closely the commission of crimes, do not the less deserve the attention of the reader because they have been made and urged before. When it is argued that the utmost precision ought to be introduced in the enactments of criminal laws, it has never been pretended that discretion can by such means be wholly superseded: after all our endeavours of this sort, much must be still left to such discretion; and more, we should think, than would be denied by conscientious and fallible men, had we not lately seen such men stepping out of their province to desire that many of our laws should be nominal, and that the liberties and lives of men in all such cases should depend on discretion.

Mr. B.'s sixth rule is that the same punishment cannot be inflicted for the same offence on all delinquents without exception. Regard must be paid to the circumstances which affect the sensibility; and, he observes, the same nominal pains are not for different individuals the same real pains. The same pecuniary punishment, which will not be felt by a rich man, will be the ruin of a poor one. The same ignominious pain, which would utterly disgrace a person of considerable rank, would not be even a blot on a man of inferior condition. The same imprisonment which would be the ruin of a man of business, the death of an aged person, or an eternal disgrace to a female, would to people in other circumstances be altogether a trivial matter:

> 'The limits of punishments are more clearly marked on the side of the *too light* than on that of the *too heavy*. The *too light* is more easily seen than the *too heavy*. We readily discern what will not suffice, but do not so clearly see what exceeds. After all, we must be contented with an approximation. Irregularities in the force of temptations oblige the legislator to render the punishment more heavy than that which would be requisite for the generality of men. It is the violence of the passions, rather than their ordinary state, against which we are to provide.
>
> 'It may be alleged that the greatest danger is on the side of the punishment being too light, because it would thus become inefficacious: but error in this way is very unlikely to happen, the slightest attention will discover it, and it is easily remedied. The error on the side of the *too heavy* is the bent of the human mind, and of legislators, whether it arises from antipathy or from want of due compassion for men who are considered as vile and dangerous.'

The same part of the volume includes a very ingenious chapter on the desirable qualities of punishments. Those which the author enumerates are *divisibility, certainty and equality, commensurability, analogy to the crime, exemplariness, economy, remissibility, the taking away the power of hurting, a tendency to reform, convertibility into profit, simplicity of denomination*, and *popularity*, by which last the author states himself

self to mean their not being hostile to public feeling and sentiment.

Under the head of *equality*, he justly censures the confiscation of personals, which is so frequent in our criminal code. To some individuals, he observes, it is entire ruin, while to others it is scarcely any grievance. — Great stress is very properly laid on rendering punishments *exemplary*. — On the subject of *economy*, the author quotes Filangieri as stating that the prisons of Naples usually contain about 40,000 persons, whose labour is lost to the state; and who constitute, he observes, nearly as great a number of hands as the largest manufacturing town in England employs. — The remarks on *infamous punishments*, and *promiscuous imprisonment*, are not new, but infinitely important, and ably stated. —We agree with the author in thinking that the denomination of a punishment is a matter of no light importance. In this respect, he censures the terms *capital felony*, and *felony without benefit of clergy*: but it may be observed, although it may not be very material, that these are denominations of a *crime*, and not of a *punishment*.

To the advocates of the sanguinary code, we would recommend a passage of the author, in which he is treating of the *popularity of punishments*:

> 'What is it,' he asks, 'that renders punishments unpopular? It is the bad choice that is usually made: the more the code is conformable to the rules now laid down, the more it will secure the estimation of the sage, and the approbation of the people. The punishments will be found to be just and moderate: their congruity, their analogy with the crimes, and their regular gradations, their corresponding in lightness or in aggravation with the crimes, will be perceived and acknowleged. This sort of merit is on a level with the lowest understanding; and nothing so strongly impresses the idea of a paternal rule, or is so well adapted to inspire general confidence, and to render public opinion in harmony with government.'

Mr. B. admits that no punishment can unite all the desirable qualities of which he has given us a catalogue. In great crimes, we must have principally in view their being exemplary and analogous: while in smaller crimes, the idea of economy and the reformation of the delinquent ought to prevail. When the offence is against property, the punishment must be such as yields profit, in order that the party injured may receive reparation.—We have before remarked that in this respect the frame of the English criminal law is eminently defective, since it never gives to the party injured the mulcts which it inflicts.

When the author speaks of the *popularity* of a criminal code, he is not to be understood as meaning that any deference should be paid to the capricious will of the multitude: but he contends, and, we think, properly, that in a code of punishments the sentiments and even in some cases the prejudices of the public are not to be disregarded. 'To demonstrate,' he says, 'that an institution is conformable to the principle of public utility is to shew, as far as the matter is susceptible of proof, that the people ought to love it. Will they in fact love it? They would love it if they were always governed by this paramount principle: but that requires a degree of civilization to which no people have yet attained. Among nations the most advanced, and even in the superior classes, what antipathies and prejudices prevail, which are wholly without foundation; antipathies towards certain offences, without any reference to the evils which result from them; and prejudices against certain punishments, without any regard to their suitableness.'—'Capricious objections to punishment,' he adds, 'range under one or another of these four heads, *liberty*, *decency*, *religion*, or *humanity*; not that they are really drawn from these respectable sources, but from the abuse of their hallowed names.' The objections drawn from *liberty* to the scheme of penitentiary houses he describes as being of this sort. In another part of this work, he reasons against capital punishments; but he here very ably refutes the arguments derived from *religion* against them. Religion, ill understood, he observes, has often presented obstructions to the execution of penal laws; and the asylum which in some countries temples afforded to criminals, he considers as a leading abuse of this kind. 'Theodosius I. forbad all criminal proceedings during Lent; assigning as his motive that judges ought not to punish criminals at a season in which they themselves beseech from God the pardon of their own offences. Valentinian I. made a law that all prisoners, except those charged with the higher crimes, should be set at liberty at Easter; and Constantine restricted the imprinting of stigmas on the face, because it was contrary to nature to wound the majesty of the human countenance.—*The majesty of the countenance of a criminal!* adds the author.—The inquisition, says Bayle, condemned heretics to the flames, in order not to violate the maxim, "*Ecclesia non novit sanguinem.*"

Under the head of *Humanity*, we meet with this passage:

> 'I reject sentiment as a judge in regard to the fitness of a punishment. I do not reject her as the first monitor of reason. Suppose that a penal enactment makes our feelings revolt, this is not a sufficient ground for condemning it, but it is a motive for scrutinizing it attentively. If it deserves our antipathy, we shall soon discover legitimate grounds for that antipathy: we shall perceive that the punishment is not well adapted, or that it is superfluous, or is not in proportion to the

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ART. V. *An Account of th*
LL. D., Rector of th
pp. 180. 5s. 6d. Board

BETWEEN splendid and
distinction subsists.
furnish much to dazzle a

mind. We are here made to view the difficulties which generally oppress persons in the lower classes of life who are ardent in the pursuit of knowlege and celebrity; and they are taught that self-denials must be practised before they can reach the point at which they aim. Milton talks of "spurning delights and living laborious days:" but to laborious *hungry* days must be often added, before a youth born in obscurity can emerge from it, and reap the fruits of toilsome and persevering study. It gave us satisfaction to find that the present biographer has not thrown a veil over that period in which his hero struggled with poverty, and was indeed a very *poor* scholar. In some other parts of the narrative, we could have excused him had he been more brief; since, while he has indulged the inclinations of friendship to an extent which may have been very gratifying to the feelings of his own mind, we much question whether the warmth of his colouring will not subject him to the charge of unwarrantable partiality in a work that is intended for general perusal. He might have vindicated Dr. Adam with more mildness; and, as the Doctor's indiscretion in one instance is acknowleged, some allowance ought to be made for those who were of an opposite party.

Alexander Adam was the son of a small farmer, in the parish of Rafford, in the county of Moray. He was born in June 1741, and was educated at the parochial school, where his regularity and diligence recommended him to the favour of the master. His proficiency in classical learning was deemed so considerable, that he was advised to try for one of the annual *bursaries*, or exhibitions in the University of Aberdeen: but this attempt involved him in a mortifying disappointment, which was, however, lessened to him by the attention of his school-master Mr. Fiddes. This first rebuff served only to redouble his industry; and perhaps at this time he formed that *fixed determination* which marked his future character. 'Adverse events,' the biographer judiciously observes, 'make a favourable impression on some minds, by superinducing that firmness and perseverance which often rear the fair fabric of fame and fortune.'

About the beginning of 1758, in his 17th year, young Adam was encouraged to go to Edinburgh; and to enable himself to prosecute his studies in the University, he undertook the duties of a *private tutor*. It was at this period of his career that he encountered the most trying hardships; and this is the portion of his life which, for the reasons given at the beginning of the article, we shall hold up to notice:

'His studies were continued with unremitting vigour, and his finances were so straitened, that, in his anxiety to go forward to the

uniformly consisted of oa
small-beer, of which he o
When he wished to dine,
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Mr. Adam's whole time
sures of his mind increase

an assistant in the High School, in the course of three years he was appointed to act in the capacity of Rector:

> 'In the beginning of 1767, Mr. Matheson, who continued to be Rector of the High School, finding that his infirmities incapacitated him from discharging the duties of his class, signified an intention of retiring. Mr. Adam was accordingly brought forward in Mr. Matheson's place, and one-half of the Rector's salary was assigned to him for the time during which he should be employed. In this manner he acted for one year, till, by the exertions of Provost Kincaid, it was stipulated that Mr. Adam's allowance should be raised, upon condition of his undertaking to fill his situation for three years, in case of Mr. Matheson's protracted incapacity. If he recovered, it was understood that he had power to resume the complete charge; but if that did not happen to be the case within the stipulated period, Mr. Adam was to be named Rector conjointly with Mr. Matheson. The latter event having occurred, the rectorship was, in the early part of 1771, left to Mr. Adam, who renounced, during the life of Mr. Matheson, the salary which he received from the Town of Edinburgh, and which at that time amounted only to a few shillings above 30l. To this he added 20l. a-year from his own emoluments. These deductions proved a considerable drain upon his income, as his class was then but thinly attended, and his predecessor survived upwards of twenty years after this transaction.
>
> 'But these were matters of subordinate importance to the effects which this arrangement produced upon Mr. Adam's progress in the world. He was now placed at the head of a seminary which was susceptible of much improvement. Its respectability was raised, under his auspices, to an unprecedented pitch; and, by his exertions arising out of his connection with it, he erected a lasting monument of his talents and industry. We have therefore arrived at an epoch in the history of his life.'

From this period to his death, Dr. Adam continued Rector of the High School. For the able manner in which he discharged the duties of this laborious situation, he was honoured with the degree of Doctor of Laws; and it was here that, in addition to his Latin Grammar, (the subject of so much contention,) he published his *Roman Antiquities*, *Summary of History and Geography*, *Classical Biography*, &c., works which enabled him to taste of the profits of authorship, and made him known in the world. It may be truly said that these publications are more indicative of learned labour than of genius: but they are useful, and such as might have been expected from a profound pedagogue.

Of Dr. Adam's domestic history, very little is related, and that little is given with studied obscurity. As the passage is short, we extract it:

> 'He was twice married, and had children by both connections. *For one of his sons he felt* a remarkable attachment, and indeed the

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certainly acting a very decided part, though it did not tend to lead him within the devastating influence of either of the vortexes which whirled on the right hand and on the left. It was truly a *decided* step, so far as he was personally concerned. It was an exertion which cost him very dear, and which, the author of this memoir perceived, had evidently given a strong tinge to Dr. Adam's mind for all the remaining years of his life.'

The biographer is very anxious to rescue the character of his deceased friend from the imputation of principles adverse to the constitution. He assures us that Dr. Adam's 'political tenets were most liberal;' that they were not the vagaries of a pedant, who derived his notions from Plato or Cato, but that 'he drew his conclusions from a strict reference, not only to the spirit of the times, and of the present race of men, but, in a particular manner, to the talents and propensities of those who held the reigns of government in their hands.' Not contented with the bare vindication of his friend, the author pronounces a general condemnation of that illiberal spirit which was, alas! too prevalent at the era to which this part of the narrative refers. 'Nothing is so abominable (ſays he) as branding with republicanism every honest man who loves his country, and hates corruption, which eats into its very vitals.'

Such was the success of Dr. Adam as Rector or Head Master of the High School, and such were the profits resulting from his publications, that he became 'moderately affluent.' His easy circumstances, however, neither generated luxurious habits, nor made him grow penurious. He continued to rise early, to be regular in his exercise, and patient in study; and in promoting the plan for providing for the widows of schoolmasters in Scotland, he was truly liberal.

The last work on which Dr. Adam was employed was a Latin Dictionary: but in this he was not enabled to proceed beyond the letter C.

'On Wednesday the 13th of December, while attending his class, Dr. Adam was seized with an alarming indisposition which had every appearance of apoplexy, and increased so much that he was forced to leave the school, supported by his intimate and deserving friend Mr. Gray. When the Doctor reached home, he went to bed, and fell into a sound sleep, which appeared to have arrested the progress of the disease, for he was afterwards able to walk about his room. He continued apparently in a convalescent state till Saturday, when he was again attacked by an alarming return of the apoplectic symptoms. Their continuation was distinctly indicated by pains in the head, and a slight stupor, till they ended in dissolution at about one o'clock on the morning of Monday 18th December 1809, at the age of 68. During the last *days of his life*, Dr. Adam expressed no presentiment of *death, nor did he seem* to be influenced by any of those feelings of anxiety which are commonly believed to occupy the mind in our dying hours.'

This account of his death is followed by a sketch of his person and character:

'His external appearance was that of a scholar who dressed neatly for his own sake, but who had never incommoded himself to comply with fashion in the cut of his coat, or in the regulation of his gait. *Upon* the street he often appeared in a studious attitude, and in winter always walked with his hands crossed and thrust into his sleeves. His features were regular and manly, and he was above the middle size. In his well-formed proportions, and in his firm regular pace, there appeared the marks of habitual temperance. He must have been generally attractive in his early days, and, in his old age, his manners and conversation enhanced the value and interest of every qualification. When he addressed his scholars, when he commended excellence, or when he was seated at his own fireside with a friend on whom he could rely, it was delightful to be near him; and no man who had a heart to feel could leave his company without declaring that he loved Dr. Adam.'

The manner in which this portrait is sketched throughout manifests the partiality of the friend, as well as the ability of the artist. Indeed, the zeal of the biographer is so warm that he generously confesses that he does not object to risk some obloquy in vindicating the character of his hero. He laments the scantiness of his materials, and his non-access to the papers that talents displaying all the marks of genius should only glimmer in the dawn of life, and sink in the darkness of the grave before they were ripened to perfection! Melancholy is the task of giving to the public the remains of such a youth: but how kind, sensible, and benevolent, does the editor appear, in the whole of his conduct towards his *protégé!* Mr. Blacket was very fortunate in falling into such hands; and, had not death marked this child of the Muses for an early grave, the course which Mr. Pratt pursued respecting him would have led to that cultivation of his mind which is necessary to stimulate genius, to expand its powers, and to prevent that disappointment which the discovery of premature intellect too often occasions. The experienced friend of Mr. Blacket, while captivated with the striking effusions of his early and uncultured muse, and while meditating the noble purpose of elevating him from the obscurity to which his birth assigned him, was not transported with the romantic idea of serving him by the simple expedient of publishing his poems. He knew the fact, of which Miss Seward so loudly complains in her Letters, that verse is not sufficiently in request to insure a profit to those humble votaries of the Muses, who, unnoticed and unprotected, offer a volume of poems to the public; he therefore did not satisfy himself with sending specimens of Mr. Blacket's genius to the press, but took care to circulate them among his very extensive acquaintance, with accompanying explanations, and procured a handsome subscription for the benefit of his young friend. The sollicitude with which Mr. P. fostered such promising abilities, and endeavoured to protract a life which, even under all the oppression of hopeless disease, beamed with celestial fire, cannot be too much applauded. It appears, from the extent of the pecuniary aids which he received from various most respectable quarters, and from the clear account which he has given of the application of this money, that his heart is warm and that his hands are clean; and when we consider that the profits of this publication are appropriated to the benefit of the young poet's aged mother and infant child, we more than pardon the editor for making the most of these fragments. We received pleasure, indeed, from observing the enthusiasm and unwearied zeal with which he has prosecuted this "labour of love;" and we are inclined to believe that the sale of this work, under the numerous and flattering patronage which he has obtained for it, will be equal to his expectations*.

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* 'There is not a person,' says Mr. Pratt, 'concerned in these volumes, of any description, who has not testified *a very generous desire and endeavour* to promote the aim and end for which they are *brought before the public.*' Preface, p. 66.

Modestly doubting his own judgment, the editor, as he informs us, submitted Mr. Blacket's MSS. to many eminent literary characters; 'not only from a wish to be strengthened in his own sentiments, but, if necessary, to be checked in his own enthusiasm.' We find, also, that he was not precipitate in calling forth the powers of this child of song. At one of his earliest interviews, he apprised him of "the danger of writing verse," and cautioned him against unadvisedly "leaving an useful calling for this idle trade:" but as soon as the editor was fully convinced that Mr. B. 'was able to strike with effect the high-toned lyre of the Dramatic muse,' he did not hesitate to gratify his thirst for fame. He calls his protection of this child of the Muses an *experiment*. Having formed what he believed to be a well-grounded expectation, 'he felt it to be a duty to devote as much of *his* time, and to counsel his young friend to dedicate as *much* of *his*, in any degree consistent with what immediate situation demanded,' to a trial of that genius, 'the specific features of which, in the estimation of the editor, are energy, magnificence, heroic ardor, and the glow of patriotism.'

> 'This plan was pursued; and the Editor was strongly supported in the belief, that, while bringing it into execution, the comparatively brief selections, from the mass of early and more recent effusions, would exhibit what a highly gifted mind might be able to achieve

From this extract, the reader will perceive that the plan which Mr. Hayley adopted in his life of the poet Cowper is followed in the present instance. As the editor knew his *protégé* little more than eighteen months, the history of his personal acquaintance needed no long detail; and letters are amply introduced to supply the place of narrative, arranged in *seven* distinct series, and interspersed with small poems. By this process, Joseph Blacket becomes, indeed, his own biographer, and on his own testimony alone rests the history of his younger days. In the early part of the month of January 1809 he introduced himself to Mr. Pratt by a short note, accompanying a Melo-Drama, of which he requested his opinion; and in the month following, Mr. P. received a letter containing an account of the writer's *birth, parentage, and education,* which it may be proper that we should transcribe:

'" Feb. 3. 1809.

'" I was born, 1786, at an obscure village, called Tunstill, in the north of Yorkshire, two miles from Catterick, and about five from Richmond, a respectable market-town. My father was a day-labourer, and had for many years been employed in the service of Sir John Lawson, Bart. whose goodness and humanity to the neighbouring poor render him universally beloved. I was the youngest, except one, of twelve children, eight of whom were living at the time that I was first sent to school, which was early in youth, owing to the village school-mistress being very partial to me, and giving me a free education. With her I staid until the age of seven; when another school being opened by a man, whom my parents thought better able to instruct, I was placed by them under his tuition, and continued to write and learn arithmetic till the age of eleven; when my brother, a ladies' shoemaker, in London, expressed a desire of taking me as an apprentice, on the most liberal terms; namely, to provide me with every thing for the space of seven years, an opportunity which my parents lost not; so, leaving school and bidding adieu to the place of my nativity, playmates, &c. I set forward, in the waggon, for London, which place I reached in ten days, was bound by indenture, and commenced my trade. My brother, to whom I must give due praise, lest I should forget the little learning I had gathered in the country, (which was very trivial, never being farther in arithmetic than reduction, and being capable of reading, as the villagers thought, tolerably well,) frequently kept me at home to write on a Sunday, which, though painful to me at that time, was undoubtedly of essential service. He is a man who has read much, and has a good collection of books, chiefly on religious subjects; in perusing which I past my leisure hours, and, before I was fifteen, had read Josephus, Eusebius's Ecclesiastical History, Fox's Martyrs, and a number of others, from which I never failed to gather some knowledge. At that time the drama was totally unknown to me, a play I had neither seen nor read; *in fact,* I had no desire, until a juvenile friend, who was in the habit of frequenting the theatres, solicited my * company to see Kemble play Richard the third, at Drury-Lane. I went, and having seen and soon after read, forgot the cruelties exercised in queen Mary's reign, and left the celebrated Jewish historians and others to be cherished by more permanent admirers. Thus, Sir, did the muse of Shakespeare, with a single glance, banish the ideas of Jerusalem's wars, which memory had carefully collected, and awakened a desire in my breast to become acquainted with no other language than that of nature. To do which, I frequently robbed my pillow of its due, and, in the summer-season, would read till the sun had far retired, then wait with anxious expectation for his earliest gleam, to discover to my enraptured fancy the sublime beauties of that great master. And thus did I continue to cultivate, with the muse, a friendship, for so I must call it, most dear and congenial to my heart, with that divine poet, at all borrowed or stolen hours, until the expiration of my apprenticeship, when I became a lodger of the brother I had served, but whose wife unfortunately died in a consumption about this period. Her sister, sometime after, I married, and lived happy for three years, during which time I assiduously courted the muse of tragedy, who continued to claim all the attention I could spare from my business, which I prosecuted with tolerable success, and made my family comfortable and happy; but, alas! I soon experienced a sad reverse. In 1807, after a long illness, I lost the wife I so much loved, who fell a victim to the same complaint as her sister. At that wretched period, to add to my misfortunes, her sister, who had previously been sent for from the country to attend her, was confined to her bed by a raging fever, which deprived her for a considerable time of reason, and nearly of life. Judge of my situation, Sir; a dear wife stretched on the bed of death; a sister senseless, whose dissolution in that state I expected every hour; an infant piteously looking round for its mother; creditors clamourous; friends cold or absent! I then found, like the melancholy Jaques, that, "when the deer was stricken the herd would shun him." It will not appear strange to you, Sir, when informed that I was under the necessity of disposing of every thing, which I actually did, and, with the sum, discharged a part of the debts I had unavoidably contracted. After the burial of my wife†, her sister, thank heaven,

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'* A little anecdote attaches to this circumstance. When his youthful friend called on him, he informs me, his brother refused him permission, in consequence of the wetness of the season, fearing he might catch cold. After supplicating in vain for a long time, he hit upon the following expedient, which had the desired effect. He addressed a few verses to him, now in my possession, which pleased his brother so highly, that he instantly gave him leave to go, together with a couple of shillings to defray his expenses: this happened when he was about twelve years of age, and, from this period, he dates his passion for the drama, and admiration of Shakespeare.—Editor.'

† 'Mr. Blacket's wife, for a considerable length of time, was servant to Mr. Boscowen, out of whose family the young poet married her.

heaven, recovered; when, sending my little daughter to a kind friend at Deptford, where she still remains, I quitted the roof of departed happiness with anguish; and, to alleviate my sufferings, in tedious solitude, began to commit to paper some of those thoughts which my kind friend, Mr. Marchant, introduced to your perusal, and which you have had the goodness to examine.

' " Thus, Sir, I have given a brief sketch of my life, which, latterly, has been one continued scene of trouble; but I hope, through the medium of your kind friendship, to be enabled so taste once more of happiness among my fellow-countrymen, and publicly display those ideas and sentiments which, in secret, I have cherished with unabating ardour. J. B.

' " P. S. I have omitted one thing, Sir, in my memoir, of which you may probably wish to be informed, viz. the names of the several poets, to the perusal of whose works I had dedicated my leisure hours, and to whose exalted sentiments I owe the expansion of my ideas: for your information on this point, I will here enumerate them. — Shakespeare, Milton, Pope, Young, Otway, Rowe, Beattie, Thompson, &c. together with one volume of Virgil's Æneid, with which I was much delighted, and read with particular attention: indeed, one or other of these authors was constantly in my pocket or under my pillow. I might add the History of the Heathen Gods, and every book that I could either borrow or buy, which I thought likely to improve me on any of my favourite subjects. I do not know, Sir, whether you may not think it wandering from the objects of my scattered studies to observe, that I have visited most of the exhibitions of painting and sculpture; and from the subjects of the artists have collected many ideas, which, probably, otherwise I could never have attained." '

To the information conveyed in this letter respecting the subject of his memoir, the editor has subjoined the following remarks:

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her. She was good-nature and complacency personified; and, when any circumstance called peculiarly for exertion, she was all attention and diligence; this made her an excellent nurse. The disorder of which she died, a consumption, had been much in her family, and it began with her soon after her marriage, and before the birth of her child. She tried her native air (as her husband did afterwards) ineffectually; and a few months before her death, the Miss Boscowens took a lodging for her near their own residence at Little Chelsea, in hopes that *that* air might do her good. There, she could walk in the garden, and the most considerate care was taken she should be supplied with any little delicacy the family table afforded. As her health however continued to decline, she returned to town at her own desire, a short time before her decease. On her death-bed, she requested another old servant of Mr. B.'s family to take little Mary to nurse, which she did with great goodness, though encumbered with a young family of her own.'

'Among his posthumous papers I find a letter to one of his confidential friends, which appears to have been written not more than two or three months preceding my acquaintance with him. Some passages in it exhibit the severest struggles of impulsive talent, and give another example of the sad fate of genius, when its propensity overwhelms all other consideration; loving the very wretchedness it produces, rather than attempting to gain health and comfort by any means less arduous, though alas! abundantly more easy. Not that the subject of this memoir was inattentive to his manual occupation, in which he was assiduous, and as his brother, John Blacket, assures me, one of the most excellent in the trade; from which, that he might not steal the business hours, he robbed those, which, more particularly in a constitution like his, should have been devoted to regular and unbroken repose.

'In the afflicting letter above mentioned, he states, that night after night, for weeks together, he pursued his darling studies with the most resolute determination, seldom taking or feeling to want, but at hasty snatches, either food or sleep. Till pursuing this double labour of mind and body by day and night, the pains and penalties incident to such excess seized upon his frame and spirits, and he was nearly becoming a sacrifice to a perseverance, which neither want nor personal suffering could abate. His anxiety to produce something, that should be thought worthy of the public, in the form of a Drama, appears to have surpassed all his other cares. His eagerness on this occasion was pushed to such extremity, that something of the Dramatic kind pervades the whole mass of his papers. I have traced it on bills, receipts, backs of letters, shoe-patterns, slips of paper-hangings, grocery-wrappers, magazine-covers, battalion-orders for the

August 1810, on which day, at Seaham, Mr. Blacket tranquilly closed his eyes on the world. It is truly afflicting to read his letters, which detail the symptoms and the sufferings that preceded his dissolution: yet, as Mr. Pratt remarks, a buoyancy of spirit is discoverable under the most depressing circumstances of his malady; and a letter is given in the 5th series, in which he endeavours to amuse himself by a sprightly mode of depicting his slowly-consuming disease:

'"Dear Friend,

'"Your's of the 18th afforded me much gratification in the perusal; and I have only to regret that my dull, inactive brain, so long sunk in lethargic stupor, is at present incapable of sending you 'a wholesome answer—my wit's diseased.'—Yet I most cordially thank you for your kind *wishes* for my peace and welfare. — May they be verified!

* * * * * * *

'"I know you will wish as soon as possible, to hear how it fares with your poor friend; therefore, without more ado, I shall turn egotist, and briefly a 'plain unvarnished tale deliver;' in which, though I shall not dwell 'on moving accidents by flood and field;' nor on the 'Anthropophagi and men, whose heads do grow beneath their shoulders,' yet you may expect something to 'make your knotted and combined locks to part, and each particular hair to stand on end, like quills upon the fretful porcupine.' So, giving you fair warning, and re-cutting my pen, I thus proceed.

'"Madam, "Head Quarters, Seaham, Feb. 2d, 1810.

'"Since the dispatch of my last, which was forwarded to General Mentor by my Aidecamp, Count Doublerapp, the whole body under my command has been in a state of the greatest *disorder!* and, though I have indefatigably exerted myself, both night and day, to quell the mutinies, and establish discipline, I am sorry to state, that every endeavour has proved ineffectual! However, rest most assured, that no glittering bauble of ambition, nor promise of unmerited greatness, shall make me swerve from my duty! While the head exists, the *hand* shall act in its defence, however rebellious the *minor powers* may prove. You have already received information of my unhappy campaign in Yorkshire: — a campaign that terminated as fatally, as it commenced gloriously!

'"The *brave spirits*, who attended me in that hazardous enterprize, sunk under the accumulating extremes of pleasure and fatigue; and the marshes of *Tunstill*, like those of *Walcheren*, are the pestilential graves in which *my proudest hopes* lie buried!—On my retreat to this place, in order to take up my winter-quarters, I found the fort in excellent repair, abundance of provision, and forage carefully stowed in every little baggage waggon's pockets*. In fact, I felt fully convinced, that the outer works were impregnable; and, strongly

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'* I allude to the generous lasses, many of whom saved nuts and oranges for me on my return to the place of my nativity.'

confiding in the heroic valour of my remaining few, mounted in despite of caution the battlements at midnight; and, firing a salute, in hopes to make the enemy tremble, fixed on their loftiest heights the banner of resolution, and descended, laughing at the doubts of Brigadier Wheezing-cough, who commands my artillery! But, alas!

> ' Poor mortality!
> Of what thin silken texture hast thou wove
> Man's proudest hopes'—*See Landscapes in verse by Mentor.*'

'" I had no sooner quitted the ramparts, and entered my tent, than Field-marshal Fever (whom, previous to my departure for Yorkshire, I had cashiered) entered with a battalion of the Hectic Flushes, and imperiously made me a prisoner. I remained under a heavy guard till midnight, when Colonel Sweat entered with a party of * Icelandic friends, and disencumbered me of my fetters. This feat performed, he withdrew me to the Western tower, and, for a mouth, I was hourly exposed to hot skirmishes of the most inveterate *nature!* but, at length, my friends failed me, and I was left one day to *march, countermarch*, move in *èchêlon* and *charge bayonet*, all in three seconds! ' What man dare ;—I dared!' but it meant nothing!—Blister, one of my antagonists, gave me three wounds on the breast, at the same time one of Prince Eden's hussars gave me five pills to cool my courage! 'Twas madness to fight against such odds!—I yielded! —They forced me to strip;—I did so; when loss of strength in the unequal combat consigned me over to the centinel, Sleep!

'" Thank fortune, I am now on my *parole*, a piece of service, for which I am indebted to Lady * * * * * * *. But the fort is still in possession of the enemy; and I am utterly at a loss to know

Windsor Forest, written at fourteen, is more replete with imagination and all the charms of poetry, and discovers more knowlege of human life, than any of Mr. B.'s poems or dramas composed at a more advanced age. After what we have said above, we cannot be suspected of a wish to take one flower from the garland which his admiring friend has weaved for him : but it is a part of our office not to yield to immoderate praise. The *Memoir* supplies several letters which discover an uncommon vividness of intellect, and the poems display all the characters of native genius : but we are to remember that Mr. B. was in his 23d year when he first introduced himself to his patron. During the short period of his acquaintance with Mr. P., he rapidly improved ; and had his life been preserved, his mind would probably have been stored with knowlege. In the poem intitled "The Bards of Britain," addressed to Sir Richard Phillips, on his presenting the author with the "Cabinet of English Poetry," the different styles of our most celebrated poets are very successfully imitated ; and it demonstrates, as the Editor remarks, 'the accuracy with which the young poet read and studied such authors as were within his reach.' This specimen of his powers we should copy, were it not too long for our purpose : but, as it is too extensive, we insert a poem intitled

'REASON'S ADDRESS TO THE POET.

'Written November, 1808, in Boswell-Court, Devonshire-Street.

1.

'When Darkness had her sable mantle cast
O'er the proud city, village, hill, and plain ;
When Silence only listen'd to the blast,
Announcing cheerless Midnight's sullen reign ;

2.

'Child of mischance ! by fortune's fav'rites spurn'd,
At distance from the good, the truly great,
In broken accents my hard lot I mourn'd,
In sighs lamented my unhappy fate.

3.

'By woes surrounded, and by cares oppress'd,
The infant products of my pen unknown ;
No friendly voice to soothe my troubled breast,
All hopes of happiness, of comfort, flown.

4.

'Then, as my daring pen the task resum'd,
When my proud bosom felt renew'd desire
To paint distress, and my bold hand presum'd
To touch the chords of the dramatic lyre,

5.

'Sudden, a voice arrested my design,
And, clad in bright effulgence, at my side

Appear'd a form, majestic and divine;
'Twas Reason's self! and thus the goddess cried:

6.

‘“ Hold! inconsid'rate!—tempt the task no more;
For, freezing Indigence, with icy hand,
Grasps coldly those who dare, like thee, explore
The scenes where fairy-fancy waves her wand.

7.

‘“ Why should ambition prompt thee to pursue
The dang'rous path which leads to laurel'd fame,
Since sad experience daily brings to view
The varied perils which attend a name.

8.

‘“ Say, what's the flatt'ring panegyrist's praise,
Or what the plaudits of the changeful crowd;
Who with one hand presents a crown of bays,
And with the other stretches forth a shroud.

9.

‘“ The wreaths Parnassian like meteors fade,
Tainted by venom'd Envy's pois'nous breath;
And soaring merit strives to clasp a shade,
In life scarce noted, and unknown in death.

10.

‘“ Why heave a sigh, then, when gay Fashion's sons,
Array'd in trappings which poor Art design'd,
Float down fair Pleasure's stream, which wildly runs

What then avails or honour or renown,
Since dust to dust must close all human joys!

16.

' " Stretch but thine eye to distant once-fam'd lands,
Where heroes struggled for immortal fame,—
There seek, beneath the desolated sands,
Where temples moulder, for the founder's name.

17.

' " Palmyra's columns, Egypt's massive rocks,
That soaring rise in pyramidic pride,
The pow'rful architect's great labour mocks,
And his proud hopes of endless fame deride.

18.

' " Ruins of greatness,—o'er which fancy roams,
Serve but to make the wond'ring trav'ller own
That those who built the eternizing tombs
Were noble fools, who toil'd to be unknown.

19.

' " To sigh for fame is impious and profane,
Unworthy of the philosophic mind,
Whose god-like pow'rs should fortune's frowns disdain,
Bless'd in the station which high heav'n assign'd.

20.

' " O! then unnotic'd in the vale of life,
Down which the fountain of contentment flows,
At distance from the world's disastrous strife,
Court thou retirement,—and in death repose!" '

Mr. Blacket's passion was the Dramatic Muse, but we can afford room for only short extracts from the three dramas which occupy a large portion of the second volume. We shall, however, quote one of the poems in blank verse, which is mentioned as exhibiting the author's powers in the line of declamation and moral reflection:

' THE DYING HORSE.

' These lines are not the effect of imagination, indulged in private, but were actually written by the side of the animal described, whom I discovered, in one of my solitary rambles, near Hampstead, in the last struggling agonies of death. August, 1808.—J. B.

' Heav'n! what enormous strength does Death possess!
How muscular the giant's arm must be
To grasp that strong-bon'd horse, and, spite of all
His furious efforts, fix him to the earth!
Yet, hold, he rises!—no,—the struggle's vain;
His strength avails him not. Beneath the gripe
Of the remorseless monster, stretch'd at length
He lies, with neck extended; head hard press'd
Upon the very turf where late he fed.

His writhing fibres speak his inward pain!
His smoking nostrils speak his inward fire!
Oh, how he glares!—and, hark! methinks I hear
His bubbling blood, which seems to burst the veins.
Amazement! Horror! what a desp'rate plunge!
See, where his iron'd hoof has dash'd a sod
With the velocity of lightning. Ah!
He rises,—triumphs;—yes, the victory's his!
No,—the wrestler, Death, again has thrown him!
And, oh! with what a murd'ring dreadful fall!
—Soft;—he is quiet. Yet, whence came that groan?
Was't from his chest, or from the throat of Death
Exulting in his conquest? I know not.
But, if 'twas his, it surely was his last:
For, see, he scarcely stirs; soft! Does he breathe?
Ah, no! he breathes no more. 'Tis very strange!
How still he's now:—how fiery hot,—how cold!
How terrible,—how lifeless! all within
A few brief moments!—my reason staggers!
Philosophy, thou poor enlighten'd dotard,
Who canst assign for every thing a cause,
Here take thy stand beside me, and explain
This hidden mystery. Bring with thee
The headstrong atheist, who laughs at heav'n,
And impiously ascribes events to *chance*,
To help to solve this *wonderful enigma!*
First, tell me, ye proud haughty reas'ners,
Where the vast strength this creature late possess'd
Has fled to? How the bright sparkling fire,
Which flash'd but now from these dim rayless eyes,
Has been extinguish'd!—*O! he's dead*, you say.
I know it well:---but, how, and by what means?
Was it the arm of Chance which struck him down,
In height of vigour and in pride of strength,
To stiffen in the blast? Come, come, tell me:
Nay, shake not thus the heads that are enrich'd
With eighty years of wisdom, glean'd from books,
From nights of study, and the magazines
Of knowledge which your predecessors left.
What! not a word!—I ask you, once again,
How comes it that the won'drous essence,
Which gave such vigour to these strong-nerv'd limbs,
Has leapt from its inclosure, and compell'd
This noble workmanship of Nature thus
To sink into a cold inactive clod?
Nay, *sneak not off thus cowardly!*——Poor fools,
Ye are as destitute of information
As is the lifeless subject of my thoughts!
—The subject of my thoughts;—yes,—there he lies,
As free from life as if he ne'er had liv'd.
Where are his friends, and where his old acquaintance,

Who borrow'd from him strength, when, in the yoke,
With weary pace, the steep ascent they climb'd?
Where are the gay companions of his prime,
Who with him ambled o'er the flow'ry turf,
And, proudly snorting, pass'd the way-worn hack
With haughty brow; and, on his ragged coat,
Look'd with contemptuous scorn? Oh, yonder see,
Carelessly basking in the mid-day sun,
They lie, and heed him not:—little thinking,
While there they triumph in the blaze of noon,
How soon the dread annihilating hour
Will come, and Death seal up *their* eyes,
Like his, for ever! Now, moralizer,
Retire! Yet first proclaim this sacred truth:
Chance rules not over Death; but, when a Fly
Falls to the earth, 'tis heav'n that gives the blow!'

The three theatrical pieces, here called *Sketches of Dramas*, are intitled, "The Chieftain's Return, or Perfidy punished," in three acts; "The Libertine Lovers," a comedy, in five acts;" and "The Earl of Devon, or the Patriots," a tragedy in five acts. In each of these, the dramatic powers of the author are conspicuous, particularly in the last, which contains some animated passages glancing at the present state of our country. *Redford*, the Earl of Devon, says, addressing his soldiers, whom he was leading against the invading Danes:

'———— Ours is not a war
Of mad ambition, for extended power;
We are not hired to gratify the rage
Of a proud tyrant thirsting for dominion!
A cause more glorious calls us to the field
Than e'er drew vengeance from insulted honour!
A cause,—which binds together, in one tie,
The peasant and his lord,—the prince and subject,—
Our right,—our lives,—our property,—our homes,—
Are what we fight for,—what we will preserve!
Now on, my brothers,—and, by valiant deeds,
Leave to posterity a noble instance
What English spirits are! that, whenever
An envious despot shall invade her shores,
Her gallant sons, all emulous and brave,
Taught by our great example how to act,
May, arm'd with vengeance, rush upon their foes,
Hurl swift destruction on their impious heads,
And blast the laurels they have elsewhere won!'

Besides these Sketches of Dramas, we are informed that two other pieces, which in course must be more complete, are in their progress to the stage. Mr. Pratt has truly called these productions *sketches*, and justly observed on them, in a letter to *the author*, that 'there are great inequalities in them;' that the measure is often broken; and adding also that 'there was no punctuation throughout.' The latter defect has been supplied: but how much more correction and polish the composition wanted may be seen from a few examples:

'*Matilda.*—Why, Liz, my father steals away from you
Like some fearful lover. What's the matter?
What, sighing? And a tear too! How is all this?
Come, tell me from what cause these sorrowful
Symptoms proceed. Has papa been scolding?
'*Eliza.*—Matilda, this is no time for jesting,
We now stand upon the brink of ruin.
'*Matilda.*—If that's the case we certainly have need
Of a little merriment to prevent
Our good spirits from deserting us: but,
To be serious, what mean you?
'*Eliza.*—You know, Matilda, my poor father lent,
Some few weeks back, the whole that he possess'd
To serve the fortunes of another man,
Esteem'd a friend, but prov'd his deadliest foe.
'*Matilda.*—You mean Mordant!
'*Eliza.*—The same;
And he has fled, with all that he could raise
From his surrounding friends, across the seas,
And thrown our father on the pitiless shore
Of this unshelter'd life.
'*Matilda.*—Indeed! Then I see but one way left us.

Or only shed them from the tender pleasure of weeping,
And perhaps stun the ear with a continual echo
Of flames, darts, hearts, priest, altars, rings, and the long
Et ceteras in the list of Cupid; but I see
You're going to be angry.
‘ *Eliza.*—Ought I not?
‘ *Matilda.*—Dear Liz, keep your temper, and I'm dumb.
‘ *Eliza.*—And is this your mode, Matilda, of list'ning
To the misfortunes of an unhappy father?
‘ *Matilda.*—There again do you mistake; 'tis true I
Can't wring my hand nor turn up my eyes
As you do; yet, let it be remember'd,
That, “ I have that within which passeth show:”
When *put* to the test we'll soon see who *puts* Dame
Fortune in a humour to be kind to an injured
Father,—a crying daughter or a smiling one.
As to marriage, be well assur'd I hold
My Donald in as strong chains as ever
Love forg'd, and I am fully persuaded
That no motive of humanity will
Induce him to burst such charming fetters,
So set your heart at rest; and fear not for
My father, my life on't, before the week's over
I shall get married, and provide for you both.'

‘ *Matilda.* Rather a singular fellow, this, Liz,
I should *like* to see what he's *like*. Pray, Sir,
Will you oblige me with a sight of your face?'

For the sake of an episode, or under-plot, Mr. Pratt has introduced a female literary wonder, who really seems “ to have lisped in numbers:” but we must take nothing from this part of the performance, though it may appear ungallant; and we shall conclude with observing that, if Mr. P. has made rather too much display, he will impress the reader strongly in his favour as a man endowed with a feeling and benevolent heart.

Art. VII. *An Inquiry into the State of our Commercial Relations with the Northern Powers*, with Reference to our Trade with them under the Regulations of Licences, the Advantages which the Enemy derives from it, and its Effects on the Revenue, the Course of the Foreign Exchanges, the Price of Bullion, and the general Prosperity of the British Empire. 8vo. pp. 110. 3s. 6d. Hatchard.

The verbosity of the title which we have just copied leads us to imagine that this anonymous writer has not previously been in the habit of addressing the public; a notion in which we are farther confirmed by a perusal of his preface. Authors on their first appearance, like young gentlemen on their first introduction into company, are apt to consider the eyes of every body as fixed on them, and to take "*a world of pains*" to acquit themselves of suspicions which they are in no danger of having attached to them. The writer of this pamphlet deems it incumbent on him to premise that he is perfectly unbiassed by party-considerations, 'and that his views are untinctured by party-preferences.' With relation to his work, he adds the customary apology that he is 'abundantly sensible of its many imperfections;' and that he has been prevented, by other avocations, from bestowing sufficient time and attention on it. On proceeding, however, to the immediate object of his publication, he, with more propriety, makes a brief communication of the course which he intends to follow; and he declares himself adverse to two propositions, both of which have strong supporters, namely, the trade with hostile states under the licence-system, and the compulsory resumption of cash-payments by the Bank.—After some farther preliminary observations, he makes a remark which has been but too fully verified by the mercantile bankruptcies of the present year; namely, that our chief losses by confiscation have been sustained in ports which have but lately fallen under the absolute controul of the enemy; and he adds, which is equally true, that the whole of their injurious effects on our commercial interests remains yet unascertained.

In going back to the origin of our quarrel with Russia four years ago, we find that the first of her hostile steps were not marked by severity against our trade, notwithstanding the most urgent efforts on the part of Napoleon's agents; and when, in consequence of the declaration of war, the sequestration of the British ships remaining in Russian harbours became a measure in course, the number thus lost to us was very limited. In regard to Denmark, our direct trade with that country was at no time very great; and we have suffered chiefly from the rigorous exclusion of neutrals, which took place in conformity with orders from France. Without these orders, Denmark would have been valuable as an *entrepôt* to the north of Germany; and Bonaparte, aware of this, has subjected her to as positive restrictions as his own dominions. Sweden remained open to our commerce even after the deposition of her sovereign (March 1809); and although the appointment of Bernadotte necessarily led her to put on a hostile aspect towards us, and to narrow the range of our mercantile transactions, they have been continued, notwithstanding, to an extent beyond example in the case of two countries ostensibly at war with each other. With Norway our intercourse has remained considerable; and the permission of it, on the part of the court of Copenhagen, is to be ascribed to the distress which, without the relief of exports to England, would have pressed hard on that part of the Danish dominions.—Prussia resisted, as long as she could, the urgency of France to fall into the system of general hostility to British commerce; and the mutual advantages of the intercourse led to its continuance, to a certain extent, until the autumn of last year.—Heligoland, though it never answered the favourable expectations which, on our taking possession of it, the public were induced to entertain, supplied during a time the facilities for maintaining an intercourse with an extensive line of coast: but the rigorous measures adopted, in consequence, by the French, diminished and finally suppressed this kind of communication.

To counteract the efforts made by the enemy to exclude us from all commercial relations with the northern powers, our government adopted the system of licences in the beginning of 1808. In the expectation of introducing our manufactures and colonial produce in return, we went the length of permitting almost all kinds of importations from the enemy's country. The extent to which our Board of Trade allowed this system to be carried has been already explained by us in a former Number *; and the writer of the present pamphlet imagines, like the author whose work we then reviewed, that our licences were too numerous and indiscriminate. He complains that, from the general terms in which they were worded, they might be employed for the purpose of making direct shipments from one enemy's port to another; and he alleges that, in the course of 1810, not fewer than 37 vessels, provided with licences and laden chiefly with naval stores, arrived in the ports of Holland from Archangel. Another argument brought forwards by him, (p. 31.) against the system of licences, is the high rate of insurance, which on goods *from* the Baltic was in the last year between 20 and 35 per cent., with a return of 10 per cent. for convoy. The premium on goods shipped for importation *into* the Baltic was still higher, varying from twenty-five to fifty per cent. These rates include risks of all kinds, and particularly that of seizure by the continental government; a hazard which, as appears by the difference of insurance, is considerably more dreaded in the case of imports than in that of exports.

The plan of our government to accomplish the introduction of British goods into the continent by means of licences was successful in 1809, and induced many persons to engage in that traffic during the following years. They were encouraged to it by the evident connivance of the Russian cabinet, into whose ports a large number of vessels, provided with simulated documents, had found admittance. In the last year, however, it proved that the continued urgency of Bonaparte, aided perhaps by the magnitude of the temptation, produced the confiscation of a great number of cargoes of colonial produce imported into Russia. Yet, under a notion worthy of so ill-formed a cabinet, viz. that wealth is acquired by exports and not by imports, the same vessels were allowed to take in outward cargoes. In regard to Prussia, although she had been compelled, in the beginning of the last year, to issue a decree against the importation of colonial produce from all countries except America, an expectation was entertained that she would continue to permit, tacitly, arrivals of that description from England. Large shipments accordingly took place from this country; and the vessels being directed to rendezvous at Gottenburg, a long continuance of contrary winds prevented them from proceeding up the Baltic until they accumulated to a number exceeding 600 sail. The season was now far advanced, the state of affairs in Prussia was evidently becoming more unfavourable, and the example of the Russian sequestration was before the eyes of our countrymen. These circumstances ought to have deterred them from exposing themselves to fresh danger: but a cautious course has seldom been our policy:—the fleet continued its voyage, and the major part of it underwent confiscation, entailing on this country a calamity beyond all example in the history of our mercantile adventures.

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* Monthly Review for April last, p. 438.

After having given an account of the losses incurred by our at-commodities except those which they indispensably require, the author of this publication thinks that it would be good policy t retort on them their own measures, and to prohibit all import from those countries in which our exports are not admitted excepting only articles of absolute necessity. Having alread expressed the different recommendation which, as it appears t us, should be given, in this case, it only remains that we add few words on the merit of the pamphlet as a compositio The style is always diffuse and frequently vague: but th author is evidently well acquainted with the branches of trad on which he writes. Although his opinions are entirely o one side, he discovers no wish to misrepresent arguments, bu aims at the discovery of truth by a temperate and candid cours His particular creed leads him, for example, to the adoption o the erroneous notion that the retention of the island of Zeala would have been a political and commercial advantage to th country; yet he discovers no reluctance to acknowlege (p.12 the notable truth that, previously to our hostility, the Danis cabinet was on bad terms with that of France. He eve quotes the passage in the Moniteur, (20th September 1807) i which, with reference to this fact, it is said, "Denmark ha acted a foolish part, and has had this in common with the co tinent, that she has always been *distrustful towards France.*"

ART. VIII. *Substance of the Speech delivered in the House* o *Commons,* by the Right Hon. George Rose, 6th May 1811, i the Committee of the whole House on the Report of the Bullion-Committee. 8vo. pp. 132. 3s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

THOSE among our readers, who had a sufficient stock of perseverance to travel through the long debates on the Bullion-question, will not fail to recollect that Mr. Rose came forwards as one of the keenest assailants of the Report of the Committee. That abridgment of a speech which always takes place in the condensed form of a newspaper-report, and which, in the case of a diffuse speaker, becomes an improvement, must be very unsuitable to a discourse consisting, like this, in a great measure, of arithmetical statements. To follow a course of reasoning and to record its substance with fidelity are much more within the compass of a reporter's powers, than to transcribe, in the rapidity of debate, a series of numbers. The present speech, therefore, when printed at length, differs more in size and in substance from the newspaper-copy than it is common to observe, on similar occasions.

Mr. Rose began by paying a high compliment to the opening speech of Mr. Horner; at the expence, however, of the labours of the Committee of which that gentleman had been chairman:—a Committee which Mr. R. considers as having delivered 'a Report with more errors and mis-statements than any that was ever made to a House of Parliament.' Adverting to one of the principal topics of Mr. Horner's speech, the rapid rise in the price of commodities, Mr. Rose makes a full acknowlegement of the fact, but very justly ascribes a principal part of it to the increase of the price of provisions by the operation of our corn-laws. The landed gentlemen, he adds, have in consequence been enabled to advance their rents: but it may be fairly questioned whether they have not suffered more by the consequent enhancement of other articles, which are indispensable to their consumption. In connection with this subject, Mr. Rose adverts to the very large importations of corn which had taken place with his knowlege and sanction, during the year 1810; and he maintains that, without the aid of foreign corn, the quartern loaf would, instead of being at the price of fifteen pence, have risen to half-a-crown.

In commencing his strictures on the Report of the Bullion-Committee, Mr. Rose takes occasion to remark the variety of contrary theories on the subject of money, from Mr. Hume down to Mr. Wheatley: but, desirous of avoiding this intricate and disputed ground, he determines to try the Report of the Committee by the test of experience. In answer to the allegation in the Report that the rise of bullion was owing to an over-issue of bank-notes, he exhibits a comparative table of the rate of exchange, the price of bullion, and the quantity of bank-paper in circulation, for a number of years. This is followed by a narrative of the effects produced on the exchange by the remittance of continental subsidies during the last and the present war. In regard to the unfavourable influence of this circumstance, as well as of the large sums sent abroad for the purchase of foreign corn, the payment of freights to foreign ship-owners, and our enormous expenditure on the continent, we are fully agreed with Mr. Rose: but the point on which we differ regards the original cause of the overthrow of our foreign trade. *He* has no hesitation in attributing the whole mischief to Bonaparte; while *we* cannot help associating the pilots at our own helm in the noxious co-partnership.—In combating the assertion of the Committee that the price of commodities is raised by over-issue of paper, Mr. Rose refers to a curious foreign document, a report to the agricultural society of Paris in 1805, by Mons. Silvestre, on the progressive increase of the expences of husbandry. It appears from this report that, in most of the departments, the price of labour had risen since 1789 by at least one-third, and in some by one-half; and all the instruments of cultivation and the articles requisite fo the maintenance of a farmer's family have become enhanced i a similar proportion. In a speech to the Legislative Body, i January 1810, it is observed that the same income does no now represent more than two-thirds of that which it represented twenty years before. We are thus informed, fro good authority, that the long continuance of war and taxes ha been productive of a considerable augmentation of prices i France, though the ratio of increase is still much behind thi country; in which, we apprehend, prices have nearly double in the course of the last twenty years.

Much reliance having been placed on the evidence of Sir Francis Baring by the Bullion-Committee, Mr. Rose adduces (p. 28.) several reasons for entertaining the apprehension that the memory of that highly respectable merchant had begun to be impaired at the time of his examination. Mr. R. accompanies, however, the animadversions on his accuracy with an animated eulogium (p. 27.) on the strictness of his honour; declaring that his esteem for Sir Francis had been high ever since the years 1782 and 1783, a time in which the Baronet was employed by Lord Shelburne to transact all the mercantile business of the Board of Treasury; and during the continuance of this charge, it was Mr. Rose's duty, as Secretary of the Board, to have frequent and almost daily intercourse with Sir Francis. —Another of the points on which Mr. Rose ventures in which we cannot congratulate him on his success. Considerable labour is afterward bestowed by this indefatigable inquirer in controverting the accuracy of the Report in two respects; — with regard to the early history of the Bank of England, and the recent situation of the Bank of Ireland in 1804. Neither of these examples appears to us productive of a general conclusion; nor as intitled, in the rapid survey to which we are at present limited, to particular investigation. On the subject of the Bank rule that "discount may be safely extended to all good and *bonâ fide* bills of short dates," (a rule which, in the opinion of the Bullion-Committee, cannot fail, when it has long been operative, to lead to over-issue,) Mr. Rose acknowleges that he feels less confident on the side of the Bank than in regard to the other points.

In the farther prosecution of his reasoning, Mr. Rose enters into a variety of numerical statements, one of the most curious of which relates to the very small proportion of specie which is received in the collection of the revenue. In Hampshire, where his country-residence is situated, the assessed taxes amounted to 342,000l., and the excise to 84,000l.; of which only 476l. [illegible] was paid in coin. In Manchester and its neighbourhood, the yearly revenue-payments, before 1797, were about 1,040,000l., of which two-thirds were in specie and one-third in notes: but the proportion of specie was first reduced to one-half, and afterward to a third; and at present the whole payments are 3,640,000l., of which only 10 or 11,000l. are made in specie. It deserves remark that the circulation of Lancashire consists entirely in Bank of England-notes not a country-note being issued in that district. All these and other considerations concur in shewing the necessity of the present stock of Bank-notes greatly exceeding that of former years; and they induce Mr. Rose to ask whether it be not a matter of surprize that the issue of bank-notes is not greater than it has become?

With these observations, Mr. R.'s criticism on the Bullion-Report is brought to a close, and Mr. Huskisson's pamphlet becomes the next object of his animadversion. That the motives of the Ex-secretary were of the purest kind, Mr. Rose declares in terms of the clearest conviction: but the publication he considers as calculated to injure the national interest in a high degree, in consequence chiefly of the respectability of the writer. He is particularly severe on the comparison hinted by Mr. Huskisson between the Mississippi scheme and the doctrine of the Bank on the subject of discounts; and he points out (p. 110.) the serious consequences that might arise from announcing to the military servants of the state that they are paid in a depreciated currency. — The remainder of the speech is appropriated to a vindication of the memory of Mr. Pitt, from the imputation of ignorance of political economy that was cast on him by Mr. Wheatley; and to a statement of the impracticability, under the actual circumstances of our trade, of the resumption of cash-payments by the Bank. Mr. Rose adds, however, that he is no advocate for that Company except on public grounds; nor would he defend them from the obligation of paying in cash for a single hour after they had the means of doing it. Neither ought they, he declares, to be spared in regard to expence, since they have derived large profits from the increase of their notes: — but the misfortune is that, in the present state of things, expence cannot accomplish the object.

Having brought our sketch of Mr. Rose's pamphlet to an end, we shall now briefly express our sense of its merits. It is easy to recognize in his pages a mind more accustomed to detail than to general reasoning; and it would be no difficult task to point out blanks and incongruities in the combination of his arguments: but we shall be satisfied with remarking, in general terms, that, as the Report of the Bullion-Committee dwelt too much on the principles of money and too little on the facts of the case, the opinion to be passed on this speech should be exactly the reverse. It is valuable, however, as a repertory of useful tables, and commendable as an example of unwearied diligence in a public servant, who has many other avocations,

equisites to self-knowlege and self-command, and the
tion of moral taste. Being thus "strangers at home," worst sense, they act on no system of moral calculation, overned rather by imitation than by principle, and the tions of vice are increased while those of virtue are ished.

remedy this evil is the object of Dr. Cogan, in his Philo-cal and Ethical treatises on the Passions. When speaking Philosophical essay, (see M. R. Vol. 34. N. S. p. 81.) and first part of the Ethical treatise, (Vol. 55. N. S. p. 405.) ve applauded the author's ability in sketching the geogra-f mind, and in laying down the chart by which we may correctly steer our course. Indeed, we have no where the subject more luminously treated, and terms defined more nicety and discrimination. Every line in the sketch wn by the hand of a master; and we rise from the survey erely with the cold conviction that virtue is our interest ll as our duty, but with that sublimity of moral sentiment truly elevates the soul, and prepares it for the high-toned ity of the gospel of the Son of God. Dr. Cogan's morality cts itself intimately with religion: if on one side it springs the constitution of human nature, on the other it is seen to n the Divine perfections. It is incompatible with false on, but harmonizes with that which is true.

e author having before considered chiefly man as an *in-d* being, perpetually eager in his search after some apparent and having directed our attention to his desires and his ities relative to this object, proceeds now to make the *ct* and *Dispositions* of rational agents the leading sub-of his inquiry. He attempts to trace the line of conduct their nature, and the situation in which they are placed, they are rendered capable of attaining.

To the second part of the ethical treatise now before us, an introduction is prefixed, containing some preliminary observations deduced from previous investigations. These afford an explanation of the leading principles relative to human conduct, and prepare the way for the subsequent discussions: in which the author purposes, first, to inquire into the nature of that conduct which is most conducive to personal and social happiness, or the reverse, as well as into the manner in which these opposite effects are produced; and secondly, it will be his endeavour to trace the origin of our ideas of Virtue and Morality, to examine on what Moral Obligation is founded, and the comparative influence of its laws on the human mind in the practice of virtue. His grand object, in these investigations, is to point out the harmonious connection between the well directed passions and affections of the mind and human happiness; and to afford a clear view of the nature of virtue, and of the various inducements to the practice of it.

In the first disquisition, 'on the nature of that conduct which is most conducive to personal and social well-being, or the reverse,' Dr. Cogan analyses those passions and affections of the mind as they subserve the selfish or the social principle of our nature, and explains the virtues or vices which flow from this source. Under the head of Personal Prudence, he classes submits to a less evil, in order to escape a greater. It gives the preference to the best objects which present themselves to our choice, that we may not rest in an inferior good, where the superior is within our reach. It implies an attention to the proper means of accomplishing the desired end, due exertions in the application of the means, and a firm resolution to persevere in the right path, in the midst of many difficulties, and in opposition to every seduction. It carefully avoids that rashness and precipitancy of conduct, which might augment present troubles, or induce evils at a future period; but it acts with spirit and promptitude, when deliberation and indecision might be injurious or fatal. Prudence has learned to appreciate the means of good in our possession, according to their respective degrees of worth, and the consciousness of our own merit in the attainment; and thus it indulges a spirit of contentment, satisfaction, and complacency; those sources of immediate enjoyment. It is cautious not to relinquish present advantages, without the assurance of something preferable. It avoids every risk, where a failure would induce more of misery, than success could confer of benefit. It implants patience in painful and distressing situations, while it encourages hope; and it excites to such exertions, as are rational and promising, in situations the most distressing and perilous. It effectually suppresses every turbulent, unruly, and self-tormenting passion, which at the moment of indulgence often inflicts much greater misery, than the evils resented. It employs every faculty of mind and body, in a manner correspondent with the laws of their destination, without abuse or excess.

'Imprudence, on the contrary, is the child of culpable ignorance, or of thoughtless inattention, or of those strong and passionate propensities to immediate gratification, which create an indifference to future consequences. Imprudence is mostly governed by the present feelings, and is hurried into action by the impulse of the moment. It is occasioned by a quick and vivid perception of some quality in an object, that is of a delusive influence, without the exercise of any of those faculties of mind, by which alone the final issue of every action can be fully discovered. Although Imprudence cannot be accused of a malevolent design, for no one can wish evil to himself, yet it is continually productive of mischief; for it is either blind to dangers and difficulties, or it wantonly and impotently braves them. It is continually prone to neglect and despise a superior good, which it may already possess, and to indulge in a craving after phantoms, which a deluded imagination has represented as more important realities. Under actual sufferings, the impatience, discontent, and envyings, which it inspires, increase the anguish; and it attempts to obtain a release by transports the most tormenting, or by methods which plunge the deeper into misery.'

We cannot follow the author through his survey of those personal virtues which are the ramifications of Prudence: but we must not omit to notice his observations on the three distinct characters which they exhibit, and on the causes which require that these distinct characters should be ascribed to them. The deviations from the line of prudence have three degrees, which we discriminate by the words *folly*, *frailty*, and *vice*. Some omissions to pursue our own interest may partake more of folly than of vice. 'If any one, in his eagerness to obtain an imaginary good, should greatly over-value it in the purchase; if he should take infinite pains for a mere trifle; or yield up desirable possessions for what is of little value, we should censure his extreme folly: but when the disadvantages of his folly are confined to himself, we shall not charge him with criminality.' Those omissions of prudence, which we class under the second head of human *frailty*, relate to the state of the mind in disadvantageous, distressing, and dangerous situations; and in which, though we are disposed to applaud the virtues of contentment, patience, fortitude, and resignation, we are ready to make allowances for the sufferers if their deficiency in these virtues be not very great. 'The extreme difficulty (says Dr. C.) of remaining within the bounds of moderation, in every case, and in all moods; the caution and resolution required never to be off our guard; and in the ardour of our pursuit of that which is allowed to be good, always to observe the precise medium, without being either too remiss or too impetuous, demands so nice a balance, both in the judgment and in the affections, that we observe an unfavourable turn of the scale without surprize, or the severity of censure.' This remark, however, cannot be applied to indolence, intemperance, and debauchery, to which all agree to affix the absolute and unqualified censure of the term *vice*. 'They are reproved as disgraceful violations of those laws of conduct which interest, propriety, and decency, teach every rational being to approve and admire. They are always of a pernicious tendency; and therefore cannot be optional in their nature. A propensity to their indulgence is not placed upon the footing of natural infirmities, excepting among associates in vice: but it is ascribed to a corrupt and depraved disposition.'

The personal virtues, important as they are to our well-being, have something selfish appertaining to them: but the social virtues have a tendency to expand the heart, and call into exercise the best affections and dispositions of our nature. They are calculated to enlarge the sphere of human enjoyment, and to produce that moral action and re-action from which the blessings of society arise. While, however, the social nature of man qualifies him for a reciprocation of benefits, his heart is capable of generating and cherishing passions and dispositions of a contrary tendency; it follows, therefore, that a degree of moral attention and culture is necessary to enjoy those blessings and to escape those evils which result from intercourse. The dispositions and modes of conduct which lead to social good, or to its contrary, fall under the heads of *justice* and *benevolence*, or their opposites. *Justice* includes *honesty*, *fidelity*, and *veracity*;

while *injustice* assumes the various shapes of *fraud*, *deceit*, *usurpation*, *tyranny*, *oppression*, and *cruelty*. Dr. Cogan's description of *honesty* as the principle and the love of justice illustrates the celebrated remark of the Apostle Paul, that "*the law is not made for the righteous man.*" A person who is truly upright requires not the penalties of human statutes to preserve him in the path of rectitude. 'He scorns to take advantage of the ignorance and inattention of another, or to screen himself behind the imperfection of human laws.'—We trust that we shall not be accused of censoriousness, if we represent the age as very deficient in the genuine principle of honesty; and if we recommend the remarks of this philosophical moralist to the whole class of money-lovers and money-scrapers.—*Justice*, however, though it be necessary to the well-being of society, is a confined virtue compared with that of *Benevolence*. 'Strict justice does not augment happiness, it simply prevents diminution; while the kind affections of social life constitute the whole of its sweets; diminishing every trouble and augmenting every enjoyment.' The characteristic marks of these two virtues are thus well and concisely expressed: '*Justice* imparts no other good than that derived from avoiding an injury. It does not commit a robbery, and is contented. *Benevolence* is a volunteer in the service of good: it is the champion of well-being: it delights to augment the prosperity of the happiest; and it searches into the abodes of Misery, with a desire to extirpate the enemy.' *Discretion* is considered by Dr. C. as a species of benevolence. Its effects are certainly beneficial: but it much oftener originates in personal prudence than in kind social feelings. It may rather be regarded as a compound virtue. We shall transcribe the Doctor's account of it, which, though short, may be useful:

> 'This virtue is frequently considered as a branch of prudence, although it primarily respects others and not ourselves. It avoids those inadvertencies in speech and conduct, which might incidentally prove injurious, or unnecessarily give offence. Indiscretion either not perceiving, or not regarding, those attentions which, in civil society, one man expects from another, frequently excites severe displeasure, without designing to displease. Discretion is a singular compound of prudence, benevolence, and justice. It is a preservative against incidental resentments and ill-will; it is cautious not to injure the feelings of those who are deserving of our notice; and it is pained by such inadvertencies as might, in any respect, prove injurious. It is a practical discrimination suggested by a benevolent temper, respecting propriety of behaviour in circumstances peculiar and delicate; and it contributes essentially to the pleasures of social intercourse, as its operations are perpetual.'

We may observe, indeed, that, as the operations of Benevolence cannot (like those of Justice) be reduced to weight and measure, discretion or wisdom will be necessary in the exercise of compassion and generosity; for, as it is here remarked, 'mercy itself, injudiciously exercised, might defeat its own purpose.'

After a general survey of the conduct and dispositions which are acknowleged to be virtuous or vicious, and of their influence on personal and social well-being, Dr. C. thus neatly compresses the substance of the first disquisition:

'The cultivation of prudence, justice, benevolence, in all their branches, is not merely of *some importance*, it is *absolutely necessary*, to the possession and diffusion of that extensive good, after which we so ardently pant; to attain which our nature is rendered capable; and of which vice is the venom and the canker. It is a fact which no one can deny, that the regular and steady practice of every virtue, would raise human felicity to the most exalted state of perfection. Were every man *prudent*, extensively and uniformly, he would extract the greatest possible good from every possible situation. He would arrive and repose at the true point of enjoyment, perfectly secure from the numberless vexations, disappointments, and horrors, in which the imprudent are so frequently involved. Were every man *just* and *upright*, each individual would march with a firm step in paths of perfect peace: — all the irritated, irritating, and malignant passions would subside: — man would no longer be a terror to man: — the voice of lamentation would seldom be heard, and the voice of reproach would be for ever silent. Were every man *benevolent*, he would alleviate the numerous wants, and mitigate the distresses which justice itself was impotent to relieve; and confer greater enjoyments, than it is in the power of justice to protect. Benevolence is the virtue of a feeling heart, and it renders the feeling heart of the befriended object peculiarly happy, by the inspiration of those delightful affections, Love, Friendship, Gratitude, and Complacency. By universal *Discretion*, minuter injuries and displeasures would be unknown; mutual confidence would be diffused over every part of our social intercourse: we should travel smoothly through every stage of our existence, strangers to the rude shocks of impertinence and indiscretion; assiduously and successfully studying our mutual accommodations on the road. It is this virtue of discretion, which forms the basis of what is termed *politeness*, in genteel circles; which is so attractive and engaging, that it is frequently presented and *accepted*, as a substitute for more substantial virtues. The semblance of good-will displayed by an urbanity of manners is found to be more captivating, than greater benefits conferred with a roughness in the mode which approaches to an indiscretion.'

In the second disquisition, on the Nature of Morality, its Laws and Motives, &c., the origin of the opinions maintained respecting Virtue, Morals, and the Laws of Moral Obligation, the origin and progress of virtuous and religious affections, are distinctly discussed. Dr. C. avoids the deep speculations on *the foundation of virtue*, and on *the proper motives for the* *practice of virtue*, and endeavours by a simple statement of facts to illustrate the moral history of the human mind. He follows a method of his own, which is clear; and which, while it answers practical purposes, may afford useful hints to philosophers.

On the application of the terms *virtue* and *vice*, and their true import, very sensible observations occur:

> '*Virtue*. This word has, at different periods, and in various connexions, been variously applied; and yet it will appear upon minute examination, that in every connexion it expresses a *salutary force* and *energy*. It is used to denote an inherent power of a *beneficial* nature, and a vigorous exertion of that power. Thus we say that particular effects have been produced, by *virtue* of certain means employed. It is frequently said of medical drugs, that they retain or have lost their *virtues*; that is, their power of producing the salutary effects, which they usually produce. Many expressions in common phraseology evince, with great accuracy and precision, that the power expressed by the word Virtue refers to something *beneficial*. Whatever is decidedly *injurious* to ourselves, we may ascribe it to a *Virus* or a *Venom*, but never to a *Virtue*. Yet we shall adopt the term, whenever the power of doing injury to others is beneficial to ourselves. Gunpowder will be said by the warrior to possess *Virtue*, according to its strength, or the power of extending destruction among his foes; and the Indians, who are accustomed to poison their arrows, will complain that the poison has lost its *Virtue*, with its powers of destruction. That quality inherent in bodies, by which an injury may be produced, unconnected with beneficial effects of any kind, is called its *Virus*; and this term will be deemed to be uniformly applicable, as long as we remain ignorant of its power of effecting good. Bnt when this power is discovered, and applied to salutary purposes, it is immediately dignified with the title of *Virtue*. Physicians speak of the *Virus* of the natural small pox, but when they apply this *Virus* to the beneficial purposes of inoculation, it changes its nature, in their opinion, and possesses a positive *Virtue*. Opium and arsenic were once considered as unqualified poisons; but since the beneficial effects of both in various diseases have been discovered, they are allowed to possess great *medical Virtues*.
>
> 'Hence it is clear, that the primitive and genuine idea annexed to the word Virtue is that of a *beneficial* power; and whatever is able to produce some species of good, by its energies and operations, is acknowleged to possess some species of Virtue.'

In a note, the author illustrates his position by some correct philological remarks:

> 'It is very interesting to trace the gradual changes that have taken place in the signification of the term *virtue*, according to the progress made in knowledge and civilization. In the Greek language, ἀρετὴ originally signified *warlike prowess*, and it implied both valour and skill; being derived from ἄρης *Mars*, the God of war; whereas *Bellona* was considered as the goddess of impetuous unbridled courage. Virtue was originally supposed to consist in a spirited and meritorious activity, not in being passive, or even in cultivating the

social affections. Such was the opinion of M. Aurelius, according to the observation of Dr. Beattie. These ideas were derived from the sentiments most prevalent in the earlier state of society, when the principles of general benevolence were but little known; when social attachments were very circumscribed, but yet, from their peculiar strength, they were *instinctively felt* as it were without being reflected upon as the result of sentiment. A *stranger* was, at these periods, almost synonymous with an *enemy;* nor was an attention to the exigencies of a stranger viewed in the light of a moral duty. Virtue was alone supposed to consist in the exertion of force against an opposing enemy; thus it was considered as nearly allied to prudence, or as a ramification of prudence. No one but a good man, says Aristotle, can be prudent; it is not possible for a man to be properly good, without prudence, nor prudent without moral virtue. αδυνατὸν φρονιμον εἶναι μὴ οντα αγαθὸν; ουχ οἷον αγαθον ειναι κυριως ανευ φρονησεως, ουδε φρονιμον ανευ τῆς ηθικῆς ἀρετῆς. Whatever is operative of good is in the Greek language termed αγαθος. Thus it is expressive of strength, skill, utility, good fortune, integrity, benevolence, and every species of excellence. We may remark also that the adverb κυριως properly signifies authoritative exertion and *self-command*, and ηθικης αρετης *moral strength.* The Greeks have also another word expressive of virtue, εγκρατεια, *inward strength*, which is obviously more applicable to the virtue of self command, than of prowess. Κρατος which signifies power of any kind, authority, dominion, is also expressive of excellence. The most distinguished and exalted persons and chiefs are called κρατιστοι; and the word is frequently used in a connexion which implies pre-eminence.'—

' It is observable that the word *virtue* is seldom used either in *the* Old, or New Testament; and it is always in a very limited sense. *It* is in the Old Testament alone applied to female merit, or to *female* chastity. Thus Boaz says to Ruth, "all the people of my city doth

5th verse he adds, “ and besides this, giving all diligence, add to your faith *virtue;* and to virtue knowledge, and to knowledge temperance, and to temperance, patience, &c. ἐν τῇ πίστει ὑμῶν τὴν ἀρετήν, ἐν δὲ τῇ ἀρετῇ τὴν γνῶσιν, &c.

‘ It appears from the above quotations that when δυναμις is translated *virtue*, the term is expressive of a divine energy, of a beneficial nature; and ἀρετη is applied to that moral energy in good men which qualifies them for the acquisition of useful knowledge, and the practice of temperance, patience, &c. Both of these significations illustrate and confirm the assertion, that *virtue* always implies a beneficial power, notwithstanding the diversities observable in its application.’

The term *vice* is explained in the same manner, and the account shews why some of the evil passions of men are so frequently and forcibly expressed by metaphors taken from various noxious qualities. ‘ Vice is the *virus* of the mind.’

In the section *on the approbation and disapprobation of human actions and their origin*, the author points out four gradations, with shades of difference in each, in the opinions and feelings of mankind on the subject of virtue and vice: but on this point, and *on merit and demerit* attributed to dispositions and actions, we must refer to the work.

The chapter which treats of *the Laws of Moral Obligation* opens with an explanation of the difference between *virtue* and *morality*. The former is employed to express ‘ the beneficial energy of an intelligent agent:’ the latter denotes the *obligatory* principle of conduct: the one relates to the act, the other to the obligation to perform the act. ‘ These terms may be frequently used promiscuously with great propriety; but whenever precision becomes important, an attention to existing differences becomes absolutely necessary.’

‘ The different modes of speech which are observed in some connections, give validity to these remarks. We often talk of the *love of virtue*, but never of the *love of morality*; because absolute production of obvious good is more immediately the object of our affection, than the law which enjoins it. We never substitute *virtuous* obligation for *moral* obligation: the primary idea of the word virtue being directed to the beneficial act or disposition, and that of morality to a law and a sense of duty. Hence we speak of *moral* duties, and not virtuous duties.’

Moral sanctions, or inducements to the practice of virtue, are of five kinds: ‘ Such as are most consistent with the best interests of the agent. Such as are becoming a rational being. Such as are adapted to the social nature of man. Such as are most interesting to a cultivated mind. Such as are enjoyed by a superior who has a claim to obedience, and whose injunctions cannot, or ought not to be resisted.’ These fall under the heads of 1, Self-interest; 2, Conformity to Reason; 3, the

Social Principle; 4, the Benevolent Principle; 5, the Beauty and Excellence of Virtue. On the last of these inducements, the remarks of Dr. Cogan are too excellent to escape transcription:

> ‘ Such is the native excellence of virtue; so respectable is every indication of beneficial influence, or beneficial intentions, proceeding from a voluntary agent: so interesting in itself; so consonant with reason; so essential to human happiness; that it is impossible not to love it, when it does not prohibit some favourite passion or pursuit. All men honour virtue. All men detest the vices of others, with whom they are not in a league. All men value the smallest particle of virtue, which they may chance to discover in their own breasts; and they are eager to steal a colouring from the proximate virtue, to adorn the vice to which they are addicted. The pleasure derived from the most striking events of history, from fictitious scenes described in works of imagination, or exhibited on the stage, prove that the general suffrage is in favour of virtue. We may *laugh* at the wit which is connected with vicious ideas, but we never *approve*. The warmth of applause is always reserved for the triumphs of virtue. We are anxious for those, whose virtuous principles are exposed to severe and dangerous conflicts; we lament if they yield, and exult in their victories. We rejoice when villany is caught in its own snares; and we retire gratified, when the curtain falls on the just vengeance inflicted upon a monster.
>
> ‘ These are indications of an inward and deep respect for virtue, which may exist in the breasts of those who are prevented, by habits of depravity, from the practice of it. How congenial therefore must it be to the minds of those who have been habituated to the practice of virtue! who feel its benignant influence in their own conduct;

not be expected in the generality of men. Though we cannot enlarge on this subject, and must soon bring this article to a conclusion, we shall place before our readers the illustration of the point as far as the beauty of virtue is concerned:

> 'The *beauty of virtue* is a favorite expression with some philosophers; and all who love virtue will acknowledge her beauty. But it must be confessed that her charms will never induce the multitude to "fall in love at first sight;" and it is probable that long before their tastes shall be formed, in a manner to be captivated by the beauty of this most deserving mistress, they may have been seduced by more sensible charms of a meretricious nature.'

Dr. Cogan's enumeration of the religious principles most conducive to the practice of virtue illustrates the importance of true religion, and the connection between just notions of the attributes as well as the moral perfections of God and the practice of virtue.

An inquiry into the origin and progress of virtuous dispositions and religious affections in the human mind is prosecuted in the concluding chapter. Here the author shews how the virtues are nurtured and advanced to maturity: but we must now take our leave; not, however, without strongly recommending Dr. C. as an adept in the subject of morals, and hoping that he will in some future essays exhibit those practical conclusions and rules of conduct, which will make his philosophy useful to the multitude.

ART. X. *Tracts on various Subjects in the Law and History of England.* By Alexander Luders, Esq. Barrister at Law, of the Inner Temple. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Payne.

WE have perused with great satisfaction these intelligent and well written volumes, which consist of seven tracts on the following subjects:

> 'I. On Constructive Treason.—II. On the Judgment in High Treason.—III. On the Right of Succession to the Crown in the reign of Elizabeth.—IV. On the Constitution of Parliament in the reign of Henry the Third.—V. On Nonobstante.—VI. On the Use of the French Language in our ancient Laws and Acts of State.—VII. An Inquiry into the History of the Laws of Oleron.'

Of these essays the first and the sixth were printed a few years since, but were then restricted in their circulation to the private friends of the author. We regret that the extent of our engagements prevents us from allowing an adequate space for the discussion of this learned and ingenious publication: but we can truly state that we concur in most if not in all of the prominent points. The doctrine of Constructive Treason is one which is peculiarly important in a political point of view. The clause in the Statute of Treasons (25 Edward IIId.) that respects "levying war against the king," which probably had originally in view military preparations only, and not unarmed mobs, however numerous, has by successive constructions been held to include all cases of insurrection and violence of which the object has been general: viz; to pull down all inclosures, to destroy all bawdy houses, all meeting-houses, &c.; such insurrections having been deemed invasions of the royal authority. Mr. Luders opposes this doctrine, and contends that it is derived from precedents which ought to have no binding power, particularly since the Revolution, as either being bad in themselves or arising out of temporary or expired statutes. For his very learned and minute investigation of this subject, we must refer to the tract: but we cannot omit the conclusion, which is solemn and impressive, and was written when there was no melancholy bar in existence (we allude to the afflicting illness of the Sovereign) to repress the hope indulged by the writer:

'If the fear of change should operate to prevent any legislative alteration of the law of treason, there seems an easy course to begin with, in the following measure, which would make the least change possible, viz. Let no defendant indicted for felony or misdemeanour, be allowed to object that his case amounts to a higher crime.

securities that have prevailed upon the law of Treason, and restore again the genuine statute of Edward the third: to provide also for the various changes of manners, and habits of men, by accommodating new provisions to the crimes of modern times. For there is reason to fear that the professional habits of professional men, would still affect their minds in making new constructions of the statute, as new cases should arise, if the Law should still be left open to argument or inference, and the effect of precedents.'

The tract on the right of succession to the crown in the reign of Queen Elizabeth will be more interesting to the generality of readers, than the dry discussion of legal arguments. It shews the policy of that Queen in keeping the question relative to the succession undecided, in a strong point of view: but it is also curious in exposing a singular omission, if not a gross misconception, of so celebrated a writer as the late Sir William Blackstone. The statute of 35 Henry 8. ch. 1. enables the King to settle the crown, on failure of his own issue, as he shall please, by letters patent, or by his last will. A similar power had been given by the statute of the 28th of his reign, ch. 7. The learned Commentator appears to have overlooked the statute of the 35th; for after having stated the 28th Hen. 8. he writes thus:

'" A vast power; but notwithstanding, as it was regularly vested in him by the supreme legislative authority, it was therefore indisputably valid. But this power *was never carried into execution*; for by statute 35 Hen. 8. ch. 1. the King's two daughters are legitimated again, and the Crown is limited to Prince Edward by name, after that to the Lady Mary, and then to the Lady Elizabeth and the heirs of their respective bodies; which succession took effect accordingly, being indeed no other than the usual course of the law, with regard to the descent of the Crown."

'Strange mistake (exclaims Mr. Luders) of wellknown history and positive law! And not to be excused in such an author. To be sure, the power of the statute 28 Hen. 8. was never executed, because it was superseded and re-enacted by the subsequent act of the 35th year, the similar provisions of which the learned author had unaccountably overlooked.'

By the will of Henry 8th, the Scotish line was excluded, and the descendants of Mary Queen of France, afterward the Duchess of Suffolk, his younger sister, were preferred. This will, so unaccountably overlooked by Sir William Blackstone, is still in existence among the records of the Chapter-House at Westminster, and was solemnly recognized at the accession of Edward 6th.—The manifest injustice, however, of passing over the issue of Margaret, the eldest sister, revolted the feelings of the English nation; and the title of James was acknowleged with a degree of exultation and unanimity seldom exhibited on the

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MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1811.

POETRY.

Art. 11. *Poems, Rural and Domestic.* By William Hersee. Crown 8vo. pp. 176. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

Many of the poems in this volume have been already published, and were mentioned in the M. R. for October 1809. The lines which then appeared to call for censure are now altered and improved, and some new pieces are added to the collection. The tendency of Mr. Hersee's writings is uniformly moral, and he displays painting in his poetry; which is frequently pleasing by its unaffected sensibility, and its accurate descriptions of English landscape.

Art. 12. *Lines on the lamented Death of Sir John Moore.* Suggested by reading "Moore's Narrative of the Campaign in Spain." By E. C. 4to. pp. 11. London. 1810.

While we regret that the name of Sir John Moore has been passed over in silence by that poet whose talents would have best enabled him to celebrate it, and who has sung the conquests of our armies in the country in which this hero fell, we sympathize in the feeling by which the present tribute to his memory is dictated. The poetry is unaffected and harmonious, and the sentiments are such as every admirer of Sir John Moore will read with gratification and interest.—We copy the concluding lines:

> ' Immortal shade! believe the muse's lyre,
> While sorrows murmur, and while hopes respire,
> Thy fame shall live till time exists no more,
> In verse, in statues, and historic lore:
> And many a mother, clasping now her son,
> By thee from death, or, worse, from slav'ry won,
> And many a wife who welcomes back her lord,
> Snatch'd by thy valor from the Gallic sword,
> Shall own thy blood a sacrifice too great,
> And mourn, unceasing mourn, thy hapless fate.
> What though in earth thy sacred relics lie,
> With tears embalm'd beneath another sky;
> Whene'er again her sword Britannia draws,
> For ravag'd nations, or for outrag'd laws,
> Thy deeds shall urge the Patriot's course to fame,
> And scatter'd hosts and reeking spoils proclaim;—
> Thy spirit lives in each triumphant band,
> Inflames each breast, invigorates each hand;
> Yet lives to hurl destruction on the foe,
> And yet exults to see Oppression low.'

Art. 13. *Poems,* by D. P. Campbell. Crown 8vo. pp. 198. Printed and published for the Authoress by J. Young, bookseller, Inverness.

In a preface written by the publisher, we are informed that Miss Campbell had not attained her seventeenth year when these poems were put to the press, and that they are printed to relieve the distresses of a numerous family. We mention these circumstances rather as motives for interest than as claims for indulgence, since the compositions display a correctness of taste which is seldom found in juvenile attempts, and many of the descriptive passages are very picturesque. In 'the Distracted Mother,' we find a mixed expression of wild anguish and tender recollection which is natural and touching; and the 'Address to the Evening Star, written in Shetland,' will excite sympathy for the fair recluse who so ingenuously avows her desire of visiting less dreary scenes than those to which she is confined in her native island. These lines may serve as a specimen:

> 'Bright Traveller of yon blue expanse,
> Throwing thro' clouds thy silvery glance,
> The dewy evening to adorn,
> Say, on what shore shall I appear,
> When thou, as wheels the rolling year,
> Shalt usher in the morn?
>
> 'Still must these barren plains and hills,
> These rugged rocks and scanty rills,
> My narrow prospect bound?
> Must I, where Nature's bounteous hand
> Doth every rural charm command,
> Say, must I ne'er be found?
>
> 'Still on these plains, where scantly spread,
> The modest daisy lifts its head,
> Or lurks amid the broom,
> Still with pall'd eye view o'er again
> Thin scatter'd on the stony plain

Art. 14. *Ovid's Metamorphoses*, translated by Thomas Orger. With the Original Latin Text. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co. 1811.

We have here the first number of a projected series of translated books of the Metamorphoses, which are to be published quarterly. In a short preface, the author takes some notice of Garth's, or, as it was called, Dryden's Ovid; and he says that, if all Garth's coadjutors had performed their tasks like Pope, in the fable of Dryope, 'he should have closed the volume with a mixed feeling of pleasure and despair, and have left the labour of future translation to more adventurous pens.' Of his own work he adds, 'I have translated Ovid literally, where I could do so with justice to him and to myself; but when I have met with an idiom or expression, which if literally rendered would have converted a Roman beauty into an English burlesque, I have *parodied*' (paraphrased, we suppose, was intended) 'rather than translated my author; aiming, as far my confined powers extend, to be

> "True to his sense, but truer to his fame."

This is all very well: but, in his opinion

> "Of Dryden's Ovid's Metamorphoses,"

(as Fielding *poetically* mentions that work) we think that Mr. Orger is not a little biassed by that prevailing disposition to decry the merits of our more early translators from the classics, which is so natural in a *translating* age. Doubtless, even the Augustan age of Anne had much to learn in point of correct versification. Pope has since established a standard of melody, from which we cannot deviate with impunity: but, in Dryden's happier moments, even Pope, we think, does not snatch the palm of harmony from his great instructor; nor is either Addison or Garth to be despised. For purity and elegance of expression, indeed, they are worthy of being studied by many of our contemporaries; or, if this point be not conceded to us, a chastity of taste, and a natural and simple manner, (free from rudeness and vulgarity on the one hand, as from a vicious and gaudy profusion of ornament on the other,) may surely be learned from the study and imitation of these versifiers. However this may be, although Addison be for ever accused of wanting nerve and vigour as a poet, yet we are assured that passages may be found in Ovid as rendered by him, and the other inferior workmen in this joint concern, which challenge a comparison with the best efforts of any succeeding translators.

We by no means wish to discourage Mr. Orger in the task which he has rather auspiciously begun. He is, we think, elegant and harmonious: but his verse has too great a monotony of cadence. It is formed, in short, too closely on the model of those melodious couplets which seldom vary their rhythm; which are musical, indeed, but are apt to tire with their music by the perpetual recurrence of the same pauses. We cannot too often remind the poets of the present day that harmony consists

> ———"in many a winding bout
> Of linked sweetness, long drawn out."

With respect to fidelity of interpretation, Mr. Orger has adhere rather closely to his original : but, when he talks of having translate Ovid *literally*, almost in any passage, he forgets the country of th poet whom he wishes to anglicize. Could such an object be accom plished, it would be undesirable. Give us the spirit of the antients, a let the grave possess their body. Let us enjoy their thoughts ; a not vainly attempt to force the idiom of a classical language into th of a Gothic tongue.

We select the following passage as an instance of more varied versi cation than is the general characteristic of this specimen. That pa which relates the " sorrow in heaven," for the destruction of mankin by the deluge, (a passage whence Milton has borrowed one of h noblest thoughts, though it must be confessed that he " invades th antients like a conqueror,") attracted us by its subject : but the au thor has not there been so fortunate as in the subjoined :

' Ere earth and ocean started into birth,
Or heav'n o'er-canopied the sea and earth,
*A sable curtain darken'd Nature's frame,**
A shapeless mass, and Chaos was it's name.
A sordid heap, discordant to the sight,
Of future elements yet hid in night :
No orient sun-beam usher'd in the morn,
No circling moon renew'd her blunted horn ;
Earth had not yet by heaven's paternal care
Upheld her balanc'd orb in ambient air,
Nor buoyant ocean stretch'd on every side,
From shore to distant shore his billowy tide,

While water, last in station as in birth,
Embraced with humid zone the solid earth.'

Advising Mr. Orger to polish every passage of his translation with the same care which he has bestowed on the preceding, we wish him success in his undertaking, aud bid him adieu.

Art. 15. *Modern Persecution.* A Poem, in Three Cantos. By the Author of the Age of Frivolity. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Williams.

A warm advocate for the Methodists, and a dry reprover of the low malignity which in some cases has been displayed against them, appears in this pamphlet; which, if not written in the spirit of poetry, is fraught with humour. The author endeavours to laugh Modern Persecution out of countenance, and to make those persons ashamed of themselves who have tried to repress Methodism by violent means. He instances the prosecution of Kent, the Berkshire Farmer, and laughs at the sage doctrine laid down by the magistrates. The argument of the second canto, with a short extract from it, will shew the style and character of this *jeu d'esprit:*

'*The want of an Inquisition deplored — some men volunteer in this service—how to silence a preacher, as in the case of Baxter by Judge Jeffries—the usefulness of spies and informers—the reverend justice of the peace — Kent argues to no purpose — finding of heretics like finding witches — the case brought into court — Kent convicted on the old conventicle act—fined £20 for praying with his neighbours — the justice of the decision — arguments to prove that praying is teaching — some examples — praying and teaching worse than Sunday Schools — all of them bad things.*'—

' " Since Kent had prayed, and there were five to hear,
" This *praying* plainly *preaching* must appear,
" In his own house, unsanction'd, unordain'd,
" He did the deed, and priestly acts prophan'd;
" By Act Conventicle, he without fail
" Must therefore pay the *fine*, or go to jail."
' This wise decision seal'd th' enthusiast's fate,
And Reading register'd the triumph great.
What zealous Churchman but must plainly see,
The sacred justice of this sage decree?
Nor let enthusiasts cry in discontent,
He neither knew what pray'r or preaching meant.
Not Sedgwick's self could form, as warmth arose,
From nice deduction more appropriate close.
' But lest some rashly this decision blame,
The reasoning muse shall shew they are the same:
She might go further, for there are who say,
Some parsons never *preach* but when they *pray*;
That pure good gospel in the desk they read,
The sacred word, and apostolic creed;
Then having finish'd pray'rs, mount up on high,
And all the doctrine of the desk deny.
Thus reading pray'rs, they truth unwitting teach,
But in the pulpit neither *pray* nor *preach*'

The editor of these
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must, however, observe
appealing to the noble
energetic and abiding n
power in the volume be
psalms are less sublime
Friendship, Melancholy,
nor impressive. Some
writers, and the followi
Milton:

' The silent peace
Where sweet Derw
Where the hawthor
Or shepherd tells

Art. 17. *Poems on vari*
cation of the Poor; a
a Sacred Drama. Cro
and Co. 1811.

It is certainly paying a
written; and the author o
will answer no such questi
opinions are rather enthusi
p. 18. in thinking that

' Earth will be hus

and the arrival of the Mill
Mr. Lancaster's method o
if Cato had been a Christi

' Rome still had stoo
And all the nations

We cannot praise the at
where Caleb says

Art. 18. *The Pains of Memory*, a Poem, in Two Books. By Peregrine Bingham. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Anderson. 1811.

The first part of this poem describes 'the effect of memory on minds which are not afflicted by the consciousness of guilt;' and the second paints 'the effect of memory on guilty minds.' Many of the instances are well chosen, and depicted with animation and feeling: but no consolation is suggested even to those whose memory records no guilt. Rinaldo's act of suicide, in order to avoid the pains of memory, is related almost with approbation; and no better advice is offered to persons who would avoid his fate, than that they 'steel their hearts,' and

> 'Reck not the future nor the past.'

Bonaparte is the hero of the second book, and he is supposed to disturb his Empress by crying in his sleep. Other characters, however, are introduced, which give rise to some forcible imagery; and the description of October, (p. 56.) in the style of Walter Scott, is natural and picturesque.

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Dix's Juvenile Atlas*; containing 44 Maps, with plain Directions for copying them. Designed for the junior Classes. 4to. 10s. 6d. and 14s. coloured. Darton and Harvey. 1811.

Mr. Dix *directs* that the copyist should trace these maps through transparent paper, and pierce holes with a needle in order to draw a parallelogram. We do not consider these mechanical methods as very improving: but, the maps being mere outlines of each country, without any subdivisions or cities marked, the work may perhaps be rendered useful by requiring students to fill up their copies, and to insert some of the names and boundaries which Mr. Dix has omitted.

Art. 20. *Guy's New British Reader*, or Sequel to his New British Spelling Book, containing a great Variety of easy Lessons, selected from approved authors; exhibiting a very easy Gradation, and adapted to the junior Classes of Ladies and Gentlemens' Schools. By Joseph Guy, Author of "the Pocket Cyclopœdia," "School Geography," &c. 12mo. Cradock and Joy, &c. 1811.

Mr. Guy's title-pages usually contain a minute description of his works, while his prefaces bestow on them an elaborate commendation. He has certainly furnished some useful books for children; and although the present selection may not be, as he asserts, 'the only one in which are concentrated those objects which every teacher must desire to see united,' it appears to be well arranged, and to offer amusement and instruction in all the extracts of which it is composed.

Art. 21. *Juvenile Correspondence*, or Letters designed as Examples of the epistolary Style for Children of both Sexes. By Lucy Aikin. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Johnson and Co. 1811.

Miss Aikin has ably surmounted what she states to be the chief difficulty of her undertaking, viz. 'to render these letters better than children's and yet like children's.' They possess amusement and variety, yet are still so natural that many youthful scribes may derive assistance from them. We think, however, that some of the expressions are too familiar; such as 'these children *came to be reckoned* the cleverest;' (p. 3.) 'the clock of St. Paul's is a *monstrous thing*;' (p. 109.) &c.; and we object to the anecdote of Edward's dashing a rat against the wall in p. 16., and to the story of the fox and the wolf, (p. 67.) as being likely to excite ideas of cruelty and cunning, which would be contrary to the general tendency of this ingenious performance.

Art. 22. *Sermon sur les Devoirs de la Jeunesse*, &c.; i. e. A Sermon on the Duties of Youth, translated from the English of Dr. Blair, by M. Lenoir, Professor of the French Language, Author of "*Les Fastes Britanniques*," &c. 12mo. Pamphlet. Dulau and Co.

In this translation of Blair's excellent discourse on the duties of youth, the meaning and spirit of the original are well preserved; and it will therefore be acceptable to all who cannot read the sermon in English, as well as to those students of the French language for whose service it seems to have been more expressly intended.

Art. 23. *English Exercises*, for teaching grammatical Composition on a new Principle. By John Fenwick. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Sherwood and Co. 1811.

Mr. Fenwick objects to the method of giving children exercises in false grammar to correct, lest their ear should be habituated to its errors; and he has therefore invented a mode of exercising young grammarians, by putting every word in the sentence that is declinable great measure learned, and in which all the most usual topics of conversation are introduced.

POLITICS.

Art. 26. *Hints to all Classes on the State of the Country in this momentous Crisis.* By One of the People. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale, jun.

Vanity is a common foible, and with political speculators it is apt to rise to its acmé. Each has a recipe for saving his country in its last extremity. The author of these *Hints* supposes that he can be useful in 'this momentous crisis:' but such very desultory advice, we apprehend, could not be profitable at any season. Who can refrain from a smile, when evils are attributed to the disuse of swords and bag-wigs as articles of dress?—The public mind is surely not enlightened by 'One of the People,' nor will any of his suggestions tend to help us out of our present embarrassments.

Art. 27. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Viscount Sidmouth,* upon the Subject of the Bill lately introduced by his Lordship into the House of Peers, intitled "An Act to explain and render more effectual certain Acts, &c. so far as the same relate to Protestant Dissenting Ministers." By Thomas Belsham, Minister of the Chapel in Essex-street. 8vo. 2s. Johnson and Co.

If with the lamentations of some persons on the rapid progress of Methodism, and with the suggestions of others on the neccessity of legislative interference to stop the supposed growing evil, we combine Lord Sidmouth's bill, we cannot regard this measure as originating in any views *favourable* to Dissenters; in course we are surprized that Mr. Belsham should compliment this nobleman on his good intentions, and should talk of the *morbid* sensibility of the whole body of Dissenters, who rose up as one man to resist what they deemed an encroachment on that portion of religious liberty which they had long enjoyed. The plea for altering existing statutes respecting sectarian teachers, or persons *pretending to holy orders,* was that 'an ignorant booby,' *who could neither read nor write,* had applied to the magistrates of a certain county to be registered as a Dissenting Minister; and perhaps it was in reference to this rumour that Lord Sidmouth talked in his speech (if we may credit the report of the newspapers) of the probable case of preachers descending from the chimney or the pillory to occupy the pulpit. We much question whether any fact of the kind just mentioned ever occured: but, if it did, surely a solitary instance of folly or ideocy is not of sufficient magnitude to justify an attempt to new-model the Toleration-Act. Mr. B. will in vain strive to make Lord Sidmouth see with his eyes; and he is too complaisant to his Lordship when he concludes that an objectionable clause in the bill was the result of mere 'inadvertence.' As the bill, however, which is the subject of this letter, was prudently rejected by the House of Lords, it is unnecessary for us to discuss its merits: but we are inclined to think that Mr. B., by recommending amendments of this obnoxious bill, will be thought by his brethren to compromise the great principles of religious liberty, which are so dear to the whole body of Protestant Dissenters. If the regular clergy or other ministers are concerned at observing the progress of Methodistic teachers, 'let zeal be opposed to zeal, instruction to instruction, visiting to visiting, catechising to catechising:' but let not the poor unlettered sectary be *forcibly* silenced. We hope that no modifications of Lord Sidmouth's bill will ever take place; and that, if the subject of the toleration of sectaries be again agitated in Parliament, it will be preliminary to the repeal of all penal statutes on the score of religion, and to the establishment of religious liberty on its genuine foundation.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 28. *Essay on some of the Stages of the Operation of Cutting for the Stone.* By Charles Brandon Trye, F.R.S. 8vo. 2s. Callow. 1811.

This is a sensible and candid pamphlet on a subject which has of late given rise to much controversy. The author, who has long been known as a practitioner of respectability, appears to have paid a particular attention to the operation of lithotomy, and to have been successful in the performance of it; on which accounts, his opinion deserves to be heard, and ought to have weight in our determination. He is an advocate for the use of the gorget; and he gives his reasons for his preference, and endeavours to remove the objections that have been urged against its use, with a firmness and decision which shew that he writes not from theory but from actual experience. He has made some alteration in the form of the instruments, particularly in the shape of the staff, and in the extent and curve of the cutting edge of the gorget. He conceives that the staff, in consequence of his alteration, is less likely to slip out of the bladder; and that the gorget will antiphlogistic doctrine as no longer tenable, at the same time that he conceives some of its fundamental propositions to be firmly established. The result is that he adopts a mixed hypothesis, and imagines oxygen to be essentially concerned in the process of combustion, but that a common principle of inflammability likewise exists, which he supposes to be hydrogen: combustion, therefore, consists in the discharge of hydrogen from the burning body, and the absorption of oxygen from the atmosphere. The only argument adduced by Dr. Coxe (for we reckon as nothing his analogies and conjectures) is the fact announced by Dr. Davy, that sulphur, phosphorus, and carbon, contain hydrogen. In their union with oxygen, to form acids or oxyds, there is no method of disposing of this hydrogen, which is not found as such in the products of the combustion. A part of it is therefore supposed to escape in the flame which proceeds from these bodies, and a part to be employed in the formation of the acids; for, according to Dr. Coxe's hypothesis, the difference between oxydation and acidification consists in the fixation of a portion of the hydrogen in the latter case. — The hypothesis, as we before remarked, is founded solely on the fact that sulphur, phosphorus, and carbon contain hydrogen; and on the assumption that, because these bodies do this, hydrogen must be contained in all combustibles.—The method, by which the author passes from the first to the second step of his argument, affords an example of that loose mode of reasoning which is so frequent on philosophical subjects:

'It may perhaps be here objected, that metallic bodies are combustible; but that, as simple bodies, they can contain no hydrogen. This position, though difficult of refutation, might easily be opposed by counter assertion:—and herein we should be greatly strengthened by the fact above mentioned, of its being a constituent in all the other inflammables. Reason would therefore lead us to conclude, that as metals are combustible, although so various in themselves; this common property in them must equally depend on the presence of one similar principle. To this we may add, that as only a few months have compelled us to admit its existence in sulphur and the other (supposed) simple combustibles; so it is not improbable, that the rapid strides of chemical research will shortly detect it as an inmate of the metals.'

Such kind of proceeding does not require any formal confutation; and we can only regret that a man of ability, as Dr. Coxe appears to be, should indulge in such speculation, and that a Professor in an University should set so bad an example to his pupils.

In conclusion, it may be proper to remark that the hypothesis of the author, so far as it respects combustion, has been frequently proposed, and has been formally controverted by the French chemists, and, in the opinion of most persons, refuted. Before, therefore, it is again brought forwards, it would be necessary that the controversy should be reviewed, and that the answers which have already been given to it should be opposed and shewn to be insufficient; otherwise, we are going over ground previously trodden, and our motion is rather retrograde than progressive.

Art. 30. *Practical Observations on the Diseases of the Inner Corner of the Human Eye;* comprising the *Epiphora,* the *Tumor sacculi lachrymalis,*

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The three diseases enu
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the *fistula lachrymalis.*
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is materially different from
Scarpa ; and it is desirable t
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Art. 31. *A Letter respectfully addressed to the Commissioners for Transports, Sick and Wounded Seamen*, &c. &c. &c. on the Operation for Popliteal Aneurysm. By R. C. Hutchinson, M. D. Surgeon to the Royal Naval Hospital at Deal. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Callow. 1811.

The purport of this little tract is to bring into notice an invention of the author, which he calls 'the Finger-instrument.' In performing the operation for popliteal aneurysm, he felt the necessity of some contrivance by which he might 'retract one side of a deep incised wound, at the bottom of which the Surgeon has to tie an artery of magnitude, and particularly so when the femoral artery is to be tied from the outer margin of the Sartorius muscle.' The invention consists in a kind of wire-frame, placed at an angle of about 70° to the handle; and which, we should suppose, would very well accomplish the desired object. An account is given of two operations which the author performed for popliteal aneurysm, with success; in which the only circumstance that requires to be noticed is that he advises the external incision to be made at the *outer* edge of the Sartorius muscle, contrary to the method of Hunter, who began at the *inner* edge. By this deviation from the original plan, it is supposed that the operator will be less likely to divide the saphena vein and the larger lymphatic vessels.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *The New Pocket Cyclopædia*; or Elements of useful Knowledge, methodically arranged: designed for the higher Classes in Schools, and for Young Persons in general. By John Millard, Assistant-Librarian of the Surry Institution. 12mo. pp. 660. 8s. Boards. Sherwood & Co. 1811.

Every publication of an elementary character, and avowedly destined to promote the instruction of youth, has urgent claims on our careful and discriminative notice. Some time ago (Vol. li. p. 220.) we had occasion to advert to a small work, of which the object was similar to that of Mr. Millard's Cyclopædia, but of which the careless and defective execution rendered it, in our opinion, very unfit for educational purposes. Mr. Millard has obviously brought more industry and discernment to his task; for his pages generally exhibit as much accurate and satisfactory information as can be reasonably conveyed within a narrow compass; and his language is, for the most part, perspicuous and correct. As a favourable specimen we select the article *Animalcula infusoria*, both because it is neatly condensed, and because it can scarcely fail to interest and amuse most of our readers.

'ANIMALCULA INFUSORIA, or animalcules found in different liquids. These minute beings are principally to be observed by the aid of the microscope, in such fluids as have had any animal or vegetable substance infused in them. The antients were totally unacquainted with this class of beings. To them, the mite was made the *ne plus ultra*, or utmost bound of animal minuteness; but the moderns, assisted by that powerful instrument the microscope, have discovered whole tribes of animals, compared with which even mites may be considered as a kind of elephants. The principal genera are, 1. *Vorticella*. The *v. convallaria*, is a beautiful transparent animalcule, formed

whole is in the highest
and contraction of the
interesting spectacle.
from the apparent rap
strange power of resto
many months in a glass.
able cercaria, is the c
appears on the surfac
months.

' 3. *Tricboda.* The
very long diverging ray
about the size of a smal
stem of some small wate
torn in pieces, by mean
instruments, and in the
apparently complete, and
Volvox. The *v. globator*
the advanced state of spri
mense numbers in the cle
are irregular, in all directi
as if on an axis. 5. The
tribe. One species of th
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It is viviparous, and freq
general appearance when
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Monas are exceedingly sm
surveyed by the utmost po
as a kind of moving point,

' A countless swarm of a
table infusion, after the spa
beans, wheat, and other sub

' * If one of them be cut
coiled up, and inclosed each

surface of plums, grapes, and many other fruits, is *not* " a living world," but a mere vegetable efflorescence, which regularly takes place on such kind of fruit.'

We have been particularly pleased with the compiler's abridged account of *Heraldry*, of many of the *Arts* and *Manufactures*, of the history and process of *Printing*, and of the different *Religious Sects*. The references to select and appropriate works, at the close of each article, are, in a great variety of instances, extremely judicious, and must in course prove highly serviceable, especially to the uninformed. On some occasions, however, this list has struck us as rather scanty. Under *Mythology*, for example, we expected to have found *Bell's New Pantheon*; under *Music*, *Rousseau's Dictionary*, and *Dr. Burney's History* of that science; under *Ethics*, *Hutchinson's Moral Philosophy*, and *Ferguson's Moral and Political Science*; and, under *Algebra*, the names of *M'Laurin*, *Euler*, &c.

A few of the general topics are too much compressed to be of any essential benefit to the uninitiated. Thus, the whole art of logic is squeezed into two duodecimo pages of letter-press; *Geometry*, into one and a half; and *Algebra*, into two short paragraphs! We have also to note some omissions and inaccuracies, which may be easily supplied, or corrected, in a subsequent impression. The assertion, for example, that sound is common to *all* animals is too unqualified, because few fishes are capable of uttering it; and the same remark applies to many insects and vermes. — The *grand* and the *sublime* can scarcely, with propriety, be reckoned as two *distinct* kinds of style; and the *essentials* of a *good* style do not include all the qualities of the *different kinds*, which Mr. Millard's definitions would lead us to suppose were identical. — Among the mineral products of England, should have been enumerated copper, lead, rock-salt, plumbago, manganese, &c.; and, in making mention of the principal deposits of fossil-salt, that of Northwich, which is very considerable, should not have been overlooked. — The length of Guernsey is erroneously stated at thirteen miles, whereas it is only seven and a half; and its greatest breadth scarcely exceeds four, though Mr. Millard says twelve. Jersey, again, instead of being *rather less*, is considerably larger than Guernsey, being in the form of a parallelogram, and about ten miles long, and five of average breadth. — That the '*Irish* herrings are next in value to those of Holland and of *Dublin*' rather savours of a *bull*. — *Culross*, which is included in the county of Perth, has no municipal connection with Kinross-shire, of which *Kinross* is the head-town; and *Annandale* is not a *town*, but a *district*, of which *Annan* is the market-town. — As to the *Chersonge of Cantire*, our topographical recollections have never travelled so far. — In stating the causes which have contributed to the success of the British manufactures, the liberty of the subject, and the practical application of the important doctrine of the sub-division of labour, ought to have been specified. — A number of mistakes occur in the sections devoted to naval and military affairs: in the former, the term *Frigate* is applied to *Line of Battle Ships*, from 64 to 80 guns; and *the lieutenant* of a ship of war is mentioned without distinguishing the number of such officers: in the latter, it is erroneously stated that our army has now no Field

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Taste and *Memory*. In
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and religious position, wi
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its present form, as a res
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limited circumstances pre
sources of information.

Art. 33. *Fifth Report*
read at the Annual Ge
To which is added an A
pp. 143. 2s. Hatcha

Highly laudable as the
we are sorry to find that t
Till the slave-trade be tota
cannot proceed; and it a
from being suppressed by t
The spirit of commercial a

any hitherto passed are necessary to the complete suppression of the traffic. Some late decisions in our Admiralty-courts will certainly aid the cause; and the activity of the African Institution, in bringing to public notice every species of information respecting the state of the negroes in their own country, and their treatment in the West Indies, must tend to forward the object. It is lamentable, however, to hear the Society confess that 'the great revival of the slave-trade has given a severe check to the favourable appearances of improvement which were discernable among the natives on the coast about two years ago.' The Directors hope that 'the ground which has been lost will be recovered,' and they report some favourable circumstances; yet it must be owned that very little has hitherto been done, and that the civilization of Africa, to any extent, is not likely to be soon realized.

Art. 34. *Report of the Society for preventing wanton Cruelty to Brute-Animals.* Instituted at Liverpool, October 25th, 1809. 8vo. 6d. Printed at Liverpool.

Man is appointed to a dominion over the brute creation: but he should distinguish the right to *use* from the crime of cruelly *abusing*. In a civilized country, professing the benevolent principles of the Gospel, the misuse of brute-beasts ought to be universally reprobated; and it is a very commendable act to endeavour to impress on the minds of the lower classes a sense of duty towards those animals who are subjected to their power. How far the members of the Liverpool Institution will succeed in their views, we cannot say: but we highly approve of their exertions, and hope that by their means the cruelties of which they complain in overloading draft-animals, and over-driving those which are destined for slaughter, will in some measure be suppressed. It has been said that "England is the hell of horses." Undoubtedly these useful and noble animals are cruelly abused by their drivers on our public roads; and no one who is acquainted with the stage-coach and posting business can be ignorant of the multitudes which are annually destroyed in this line. The avarice of man blinds him to his duty towards the beast which he employs; and, with regard both to negroes and to horses, a calculation is made not of their sufferings but of the profit which can be derived from them in a given time. Let not the humane, however, be discouraged, but keep a watchful eye on carters, cattle-drivers, and stage-coachmen.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 35. *Religious Liberty, the Offspring of Christianity*; preached at Worship-Street, June 4, 1811, before the Annual Assembly of the General Baptists: with the Schedules of Lord Sidmouth's Bill, and the Resolutions of the General Body of Dissenting Ministers in London and Westminster, &c. &c. By John Evans, A. M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

Commenting on the parable of the wheat and the tares, (quære? should *ζιζανια* be translated *tares?*) Mr. Evans observes, among other remarks which this part of the Gospel suggests, that 'this parable condemns that rash, hasty, uncharitable, and intolerant spirit which would avenge the cause of righteousness; an office which the Divine Being has reserved to himself.' On this principle,

House of Lords, on th
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Art. 36. *The Word of*
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Exeter, 20th of Mar
Fast. By R. H. Ca
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Mr. Chislett's letters ar
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THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
SIXTY-SIXTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Histoire des Premiers Tems*, &c. &c.; i. e. A History of the early Ages of Greece, from Inachus to the Fall of the Pisistratidæ; intended for an Introduction to all the Works which have appeared on this Subject; with Genealogical Tables of the principal Families of Greece. By M. Clavier, Judge in the Court of Criminal Justice sitting at Paris. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1809. Imported by Deconchy. Price 1l.

> "*Quantum distat ab Inacho*
> *Codrus, pro patriâ non timidus mori,*
> *Narras, et genus Æaci,*
> *Et pugnata sacro bella sub Ilio!*"

Well might we address M. Clavier in these words of Horace, and on the present occasion express still stronger surprize than that judicious critic felt at the superfluous antiquarian researches of his friend. The heroic ages of Greece have, in all times till the present*, been considered as enveloped in too deep an obscurity for any eye but that of the fabulist, or the fabling poet, to attempt to penetrate: but an historian has at length appeared, venturous enough to enter on

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* The chronological lucubrations of preceding writers have (at least) been too general to be compared with the *accuracy* and detail of M. Clavier.

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its original application

> " *Nec sic incipias,*
> *Fortunam Pria*
> *Quid dignum ta*
> *Parturiunt mont*

M. Clavier is a gen
Freret, the great reviver
nology. — We

century; an allotment at first view incorrect, when applied to royal genealogies, to which *Freret* and his school *have* applied it in the larger part of their computations. That this common law of lineal descent cannot be adopted, in computing a succession of kings, has been sufficiently established; and, when M. CLAVIER asserts 'that, since we find nearly one hundred years occupied by three generations during the periods with which we are well acquainted by means of the Olympiads, we ought to presume that such was also the case with the ages preceding that chronological æra:' (see note, page 326. Vol. 1.) granting his assumption to be correct, (which it is far from being,) it is obvious that he still omits to consider the probable increase of quickness in family-succession during times of perpetual bloodshed and universal barbarism. Then we might most correctly say with the Satirist,

> " *Ad generum Cereris sine cæde et vulnere pauci*
> *Descendunt reges, et siccâ morte Tyranni.*"

Even in times comparatively civilized, the calculation, as applied to royal genealogies, fails in correctness. The proportion of three descents to a century has been *clearly* shewn to be too high, in all authenticated history; and a much more probable ratio of the length of reigns to that of generations has been stated as $22\frac{1}{3}$ to $33\frac{1}{3}$, or as nearly 2 to 3. Since the best improvements on Newton's original observations appear to us to have decided this point, *for all practical purposes*, beyond a controversy, we shall not waste our own nor our reader's time by a farther discussion of the subject.—As it is possible, however, that M. CLAVIER's ample and minute examination of Grecian genealogies may throw some light on the remote history of that interesting people, and (although his chronological computations be made on an erroneous scale,) as his synchronisms may assist us in gaining a general view of the early affairs of Greece, we consider him to be an useful auxiliary, or rather *avant courier*, to the numerous historians of the country; and we shall proceed to translate such extracts from his work as we think are best calculated to excite that attention which it deserves:

'If we cast our eyes over the history of Greece,' (observes the author, in his preliminary discourse,) 'we shall find that Homer, who was at once the poet and the historian, lived about four centuries preceding the age of Herodotus*. The Cyclical Poets whom we have lost, but many fragments of whose writings remain, were contemporaries of Homer, or lived a short time after him. These poets, of whom the principal are Hesiod, Creophilus of Samos, Arctinus of Miletus, Stasinus of Cyprus, Lesches, and Pisander of Camira, had treated of almost every part of heroic history; and it is from them that the first historians had drawn the genealogies on which they built. From the time of Herodotus to our own days, an innumerable crowd of writers have arisen who have successively cited each other, which leaves us in no doubt as to their respective epochs; and we can establish, from their works, an uninterrupted succession of generations from Inachus to Cleomenes, one of the last kings of Lacedæmon, of the race of the Heraclidæ. We are acquainted, moreover, with the most important events which have happened in each epoch.

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* According to Herodotus himself, the age of Homer preceded his own by about 400 years. That of Herodotus is placed at 484 years before our æra.—*Rev.*

‘The object of these introductory observations is principally to anticipate the charge which may be brought against me of having indulged myself in long and painful researches, to elucidate a history which is very generally regarded as in a great measure fabulous. I agree that this opinion appears to have some foundation; since Varro[*], the most learned of the Romans, has designated by the name of *mythological* the ages which passed from the first deluge (we know not whether that of Ogyges or that of Deucalion be meant) to the commencement of the Olympiads; and since we see by the exordium of Thucydides that the Greeks themselves had none but the most uncertain notions concerning the history of all this period. It will therefore appear surprizing that, deprived of the greatest part of the sources from which the antients could draw their information, I dare to attempt the elucidation of that which appeared to them wrapt in almost impenetrable obscurity. As I may be accused of temerity in this respect, I proceed, before I enter on my subject, to examine the causes of this obscurity; I shall first make it appear that it arose less from the want of records, than from the little interest which the Greeks took in the history of these early ages; and above all, from the deficiency in historic criticism which is observable in the major part of the antient writers. Again, although we have lost a great number of original works, yet we have preserved a large share of the traditions which they contained; and our only business is to learn how to disentangle them from the mass of fables with which they are confounded.’

We shall make but a brief remark or two on the above passages. They are certainly calculated to inflame curiosity by the boldness and novelty of their pretensions: but we must suggest to the author that the repeated citation of each other by a long list of writers subsequent to Herodotus, although it *must* establish their own order of succession, *may* very probably not determine the credit of genealogies long previous to that historian; especially when it is considered (as we must again

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‘[*] In Censorinus, *De Die natali*, cap. 21.’

and again remind the reader) that the poetical framers of those genealogies, and the first historical copiers of them, only survive in fragments, preserved by no writer* antecedent to the middle of the second century before Christ, and by some (of the few who are mentioned) as much posterior as several centuries.

Let us continue, however, to suffer M. CLAVIER to speak for himself, since our readers, perhaps, may form different conclusions from the same premises, and may not partake of our incredulity with regard to his promised illumination of profane history before the æra of the Olympiads. "Darkness visible" ever seemed to us the best character which could be given of it: if, however, genealogy be the thread which is to conduct us through the labyrinth of the heroic ages, we should follow it by all means, and be more grateful than the antient hero was to his conductress through the labyrinth of Crete.

After some ingenious but rather fanciful observations on the causes and effects of the early expeditions of the Greeks, the author proceeds to make the following remarks on the main subject of his performance:

'That isolated situation, in which the people of Greece lived during a long period, is one of the principal causes for the obscurity in which these early ages are enveloped: in fact, it is almost impossible to write a general history, because of the difficulty in making the epochs agree with each other, every state having its peculiar manner of calculating time, after some celebrated feast or magistracy. This is the reason for the first historians having occupied themselves principally in collecting genealogies; they formed the chief part of the works of Acesilaus, Hellanicus, Hecatæus of Miletus, Pherecydes of Leros, Dionysius of Miletus, &c.: but they did not think of comparing the one with the other, in order to establish those synchronisms, by the assistance of which they might have placed events at their true date. They, therefore, had made collections of particular rather than of general histories; as may be seen from the fragments which remain of Hellanicus, of Pherecydes, and Hecatæus of Miletus. Their works, notwithstanding, afforded valuable materials, if they had known how to employ them: indeed these genealogies were their only means of ascending to the real origin of a people, who usually came from the same country as their chiefs. They were, however, the only chronological threads which they could follow back to those remote ages, and, indeed, even to times nearer approaching the modern; for the Olympiads, which form, by their succession, so luminous a torch for history, observed no regular course till the year 580 B. C.; an epoch at which the Eleans having become absolute masters of Olympia, had nothing thenceforth to occupy them but the celebration of their games. The first writers, such as Ephorus, Callisthenes, and Anaximenes, who united in one body the universal history of Greece, ought to have applied themselves to these genealogies: but they wrote at a period in which almost all the people of Grecian origin were united under the denomination of Hellenes; (which term, however, belonged only to the Dorians, as Herodotus has remarked;) and therefore they deemed it unnecessary to ascend higher than Deucalion, in whose family they sought the origin of many nations who had but recently entered into the Hellenic confederacy. They also, for the most part, adopted the tradition of the tragic writers, who had much more celebrity, and were infinitely preferred to the cyclical poets, whose works were very little read. The chronologers who followed, such as Apollodorus, Eratosthenes, Castor, Sosibius, the author of the Chronicle of Paros, &c. scarcely concerned themselves more with the events which had preceded the expedition of the Argonauts; and what they said of those events was in conformity to the prejudices of their nation. It is thus that the author of the Parian Chronicle, who was an Athenian, commences with Cecrops, whom he makes contemporary with Deucalion, and anterior to Danaüs; and he speaks neither of the ancient kingdom of Argos, nor of that of Arcadia. Apollodorus himself, in his *Bibliotheca*, places the family of Deucalion immediately after the genealogies of the Gods; whence we see that he regarded them as the most antient; and it is probable that those whose works we have lost had considered them altogether in the same light. I will not speak of more modern chronologers, such as Eusebius, Syncellus, and some others, from whom we have extracts in the works of the Fathers of the Church, which they have written against the Heathens; they have in general only copied the antients, except where they have wished to make the Grecian history accord with the culations; this business therefore was the first to occupy me. I have already offered to the public, in my notes on the *Bibliotheca* of Apollodorus, some attempts of this kind, which have been well received. I was hence induced to make new researches in order to complete the genealogies in question, and I believe that they *are* completed in a tolerably satisfactory manner. *We have no longer indeed the Cyclical poets, nor the first historians,* who had collected these genealogies: but we have extracts from their works in the *Bibliotheca* of Apollodorus; in the fourth book of Diodorus Siculus, who has only, as we may say, abridged the epic cycle of Dionysius of Miletus; in Pausanias, who had read with care the Cyclical poets and the antient historians; and lastly, in the Chronicles of Eusebius, and of Syncellus, who have often copied the former chronologers of whom I have spoken. I have compared these extracts with the fragments of original authors which the antients have transmitted to us; and in uniting all these sources of information, I hope that I have established the larger part of these genealogies, the same almost in form as tradition has consecrated them. This part of my undertaking has given me much trouble; and it is not the least important portion, as has been sufficiently perceived by *Freret*, in the work of which I have spoken, and which is not yet published. It was communicated to me by the learned M. *de Sainte Croix*, whose death literature has to deplore, and whose friendship I have to regret. The authority of *Freret* being of the greatest weight in such a matter, I believe I ought to cite his own expressions:

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* Certainly not, as M. CLAVIER has specified his authorities, viz. Apollodorus, Diodorus Siculus, Pausanias, Eusebius, Syncellus.

' " In order to determine with some degree of certainty the date of the historical traditions in each nation, we must set out, as I have done, from an historical epoch consistent with and common to all these nations. Such perhaps, for the epoch of the Greeks, as the war with Troy, in which almost all the people of Greece had a share. The genealogy of the different chiefs who commanded there, taken successively from age to age, will conduct us nearly to a time in which we shall find nothing but generations absolutely *poetical*; of nymphs, daughters of a river; of men, born from the intercourse of a God with a mortal; whose family will be unknown, or will be found only in the critical writers of the ages subsequent to that of Alexander. Therefore we should regard this epoch as the commencement of that family, and all that preceded it should be considered as fabulous and unknown. The genealogy of Achilles, for example, ascends by his father Peleus up to Æacus, sovereign of the Isle of Ægina: but this Æacus being the fruit of the amours of Jupiter with a nymph, daughter of the river Asopus, he will be a new man, whose ancestors were unknown; and we shall fix at the third generation, before the war with Troy, the time at which the Isle of Ægina was inhabited; or at least, that at which the inhabitants began to form a city. It appears that a method as simple but as certain ought to have been followed by all the critics: but it has not been employed. The work of Salmatius, " *De Linguâ Hellenisticâ*," and the Commentary of Prideaux upon the Arundelian Marbles, shew the embarrassment into which two learned men were thrown, by not having followed that method, and by having supposed that the duration of the heroic times had been the same for all the people of Greece."

' It may be seen by this passage of *Freret*, that these genealogies are the only certain means of shewing the origin of different nations. He also made advantageous use of them in his defence of (" *the Vulgar*") Chronology against Newton, to determine many important periods between the taking of Troy and the commencement of the Olympiads; and he would perhaps have spared himself some errors, if he had never deserted such a guide, out of deference to the opinions of the antient chronologers. I have, I believe, executed an useful task in causing the principal of these genealogies to be printed in the form of tables, which may be found at the end of this book. I have put at the head that of the family of Inachus; because it includes almost all the history of Greece; it begins indeed at the foundation of the kingdom of Argos, and finishes at Cleomenes III., who perished at Alexandria towards the year 218 before our æra, a little time previous to the conquest of Greece by the Romans. It will perhaps be rather difficult to believe that Danaus descended from Inachus; yet it appears certain that he established this genealogy in order to ascend the throne; it was therefore consecrated by tradition, and I have not hesitated in adopting it. I have put Cadmus in the same table, because all my thologers make him descend from Inachus; and the ties which long subsisted between his descendants and the Heraclidæ appear to prove effectually that he should be considered as proceeding from the same origin. His posterity ended with Theron, tyrant of Agrigentum, who was victor in the chariot-race of Olympia, in the 77th Olympiad, (472 years B. C.) I ought, however, to observe that some generations are wanting between Telemachus and Chalciopeus, arising from a *lacuna* in the scholiast on Pindar *, who has preserved to us the names of the ancestors of Theron. Some doubts are also entertained relative to

This ample quotation will enable our readers fully to enter into the plan of M. Clavier; and, as we have already stated some important objections to it at the beginning of this article, we shall not interrupt the favourable specimen of the execution of that plan which we here subjoin, by any farther criticisms:

'As the epoch of the taking of Troy is one of the most important in antient history, (because, before the commencement of the Olympiads, events were dated only according to the number of years by which they preceded or followed this siege,) I believe that I ought to make a digression in order to determine this epoch, on which authors vary, even as to centuries. They generally agree that the Dorians conquered Peloponnesus eighty years after the taking of Troy; and we shall soon see that this calculation appears to be well founded. The Dorians divided their conquests in Peloponnesus into three states, in each of which was established a branch of the Heraclidæ. We have not an exact list of the descendants of Temenus: but we know that Phidon and Caranus descended from him in the tenth generation; we have the succession of the Heraclidæ who reigned in Sparta, on one side down to Cleomenes, who was killed 218 years B. C.; on the other, down to Agis son of Eudamidas, who died 240 years before the Christian æra. We have that of the kings of Messenia down to Euphaes, who witnessed in his reign the commencement of the Messenian war; and, lastly, that of the kings of Arcadia, until Aristocrates II., who betrayed the Messenians in their second war against the Lacedæmonians. All these genealogies, with some others, on which we shall soon treat, ought to give us nearly the epoch of the conquest of Troy.

'The first war of Messene commenced, according to Pausanias and Eusebius, in the second year of the 9th Olympiad, 743 years B. C. Alcamenes and Theopompus were then kings of Lacedæmon, who descended in the ninth generation from Euristhenes and Procles; Euphaes, who then reigned in Messene, descended equally from Cresphontes in the 9th generation; lastly, Æchmis, king of Arcadia, during whose reign commenced the first Messenian war, descended also in the 9th generation from Cypselus, who gave his daughter in marriage to Cresphontes when he entered Peloponnesus; it is, then, impossible to admit of more than nine generations between the invasion of the Dorians and the beginning of the Messenian war. Still are they not complete, since Euphaes only ascended the throne when this war commenced: but, supposing that they were perfect, and calculating, as is usual, three generations to a century *, we shall find 300 years, which, added to the 80 that passed from the destruction of Troy to the invasion of the Dorians, and to 743 from the commencement of the war of Messene down to our æra, make 1123 years.

'* Herodotus. B. 2. § 142. This calculation is true in general, and if there be any exceptions to it, they are rather below than above it; that is to say, it may happen that three generations do not fill up a century, but it rarely happens that they exceed it.'

‘On the other hand, Cleomenes descended from Eurysthenes at the 24th generation: he was killed 218 years B. C. If we join this number of years to the 800 which the 24 generations give us, and to the 80 of which I have spoken, we shall have 1098 years. Agis, who was killed about 240 years before Christ, descended from Procles in the twenty-third generation, which makes 766 years; and these, added to the 80 and to the 240, make 1086 years. I well know that *Freret* and *Larcher*, who has followed him in this opinion, suppose, from a passage of the Politics of Aristotle, that the kings of Sparta married only in their 37th year; and they, consequently, fix to that period the duration of each generation: but there is no proof that Aristotle had the kings of Sparta in view; and as the Lacedæmonians very much feared to see the race of the Heraclidæ extinguished among them, (to whom they believed the fate of their republic was attached) we may suppose that the kings married rather before than after their 30th year[*]. These calculations are supported by many other genealogists. Archelaus, king of Macedon, and contemporary with Euripides, descended from Temenus in the eighteenth generation; which makes 600 years. He was killed 398 years B. C. Now these two numbers, joined to the 80 which transpired between the taking of Troy and the return of the Heraclidæ, form 1078 years. Lastly, Miltiades, who founded a state in the Chersonesus, descended, according to Pherecydes[†], in the 17th generation, from Ajax, son of Telamon. He founded this state about 560 years before the Christian æra; which, with the 566 years which the seventeenth generation give us, make 1126 years. I could multiply proofs, but here are sufficient, I think, to *demonstrate* that we can put back the taking of Troy only 1100 years beyond our æra. I am well aware that the opinions of many antient authors will be quoted against me[‡], and, among others, that of Eratosthenes; one of the first who employed himself in forming a regular chronology:

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[*] ‘Here is a calculation which proves the supposition of *Freret* to be false. Cleomenes was killed 525 years after the commencement of the first Messenian war. He descended from Alcamenes (under whom it began) in the sixteenth generation, which forms 533 years. Agis was killed 503 years after the same epoch: he descended from Theopompus at the fifteenth generation, which makes 500 years. *Since we find nearly three generations in a century, during the times which we know accurately, by means of the Olympiads, we may presume that such was also the case in those which preceded their æra.*’

[†] ‘Marcellinus, Life of Thucydides, p. 1. The copyists have forgotten in this passage the name of Eurysaces, son of Ajax and father of Philæus; and that of Cypselus, father of Miltiades.’

[‡] ‘We may see all these opinions collected with much care by M. *Larcher*, in the chronology of Herodotus, p. 358. We shall perceive that almost all these authors wished to determine nearly to a year the period of taking of Troy, which is absurd; the calculations by genealogies can only give such approximation. I do not consider myself obliged to confute them, because it appears to me difficult for them to refute those positions which I establish.’

but, as I have already observed, they had no exact dates before the fixed establishment of the Olympiads, and they only founded their calculations on genealogies. Now if those which I am about to report are exact, (as there are many grounds for presuming,) Eratosthenes must be deceived; he has, in truth, placed too long an interval between the return of the Heraclidæ and the commencement of the Olympiads; for he calculates that period at 327 years*, when in fact it is not more than 260, as we shall see in the sequel, which makes a difference at once of 67 years. We must feel that, after all, this method can give us only calculations which approach to the truth: but those which I have adopted appear to me to be the best founded, and I shall have, as I proceed, many opportunities of confirming them.'

We had also translated for quotation a passage in the second volume, relating to the disputed æra of the first institution of the Olympiads: but our limits will not allow of its insertion.

Besides the genealogical calculations, and other discussions of an equally unamusing but useful nature, with which M. CLAVIER has filled the principal part of both his volumes, he favours us, towards the conclusion of the last, with some *modest* apologies for the Pisistratidæ, and indeed for many others of the *great* characters who have been so *scandalously* denominated tyrants in the page of history; which apologies, we can readily conceive, are likely to be as serviceable to their author as they are entertaining to his readers. M. CLAVIER, it will be remembered, is a judge in the court of Criminal Justice at Paris; and M. *Combes-Dounous*, whose Platonic reveries and political audacities we lately criticized, (see App. to Vols. 62. & 63.) was an ex-legislator. We need say no more on the subject. The latter, probably, was out of the reach of offended power, when he called despotism by its proper name; and the former, certainly, is not that patriot

> ——— " *qui libera posset*
> *Verba animi proferre, et vitam impendere vero.*"

We have only a word more in the tone of censure to address to this author. He observes a difference between two Christian writers in settling the Mosaic chronology; — one of them following the Hebrew original, the other adopting the Greek translation. He follows Plato, and fancies that he may have the same licence! They dispute about what Moses said. He erects Plato's authority against that of Moses, and begs to be considered as orthodox!—We must not, however, take our leave of M. CLAVIER, without expressing our high sense of his extensive learning and industrious research.

'* Clement of Alexandria, Stromatis, Book 1. p.402.'

Art. II. *Lettres sur la Grece, &c.* i. e. Letters on Greece, the Hellespont, and Constantinople. By A. L. Castellan. With 20 Views, taken and engraved by the Author, and two Plans. 8vo. in Two Parts. pp. 171 and 235. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s.

The author of this volume is already known in French literature by his *Letters on the Morea*, which display the eye of a civil engineer, rather than the classical reminiscences of a travelling scholar. M. Castellan draws tolerably well, and engraves his own sketches, twenty of which accompany this publication: but they more often respect the prominent features of modern landscape, than spots which are dear to fame, or consecrated by the mouldering remains of antiquity. The present letters on the Hellespont and on Constantinople form in fact a continuation of the tour already published, and have the same merits and defects. It may be surmised that the author was required by the French government to examine routes by which armies might pass, to make charts of coasts which transports would have to approach, and to sketch fortresses in districts to which ambition contemplated hostile excursions. The delineations of military posts are no doubt silently deposited in the Parisian office for foreign affairs; and the author has been encouraged to publish that exoteric information, which prepares the soldier to volunteer, and the public mind to accompany a projected expedition. It was under the pretext of superintending the construction of a naval dock, that M. Castellan was introduced to the Turkish government by the French ambassador.

The shores of the Hellespont have often been visited by classic tourists, who have in some instances too much neglected to furnish us with a picture of things in their present state; who have described these districts, not as if they carried their eyes but their libraries in their heads; and who have preferred the researches of erudition to the labours of observation. M. Castellan is not a traveller of this kind; and, though he consults his Noel's Mythological Dictionary for anecdotes which poetry has associated with his scenery, he does not republish all Anacharsis, but narrates chiefly his own personal experience. Any portion of archaiology which may be found in the book is very superficial, and is, we believe, foisted in by the editor M. *Dufourny*, who cultivates antient geography, and is a member of the Institute. Though the author, however, is not learned, he is a man of good sense, an artisan, (should we say?) or an artist of considerable professional merit, a scientific ship-carpenter, whose habitual labors have drawn

the opposite extremity of which stands the custom-house,
vere received with the usual precautions. We then walked
ity: it is still vast: but the ruins, which cover within it
cupied spaces, shew that it was formerly much more popu-
w of the antique monuments are well preserved: but
of marble, architecturally sculptured, every where abound.
he galleries which surround the houses are propped on
umns now inverted, the capitals having been employed as
bove a gateway is remarked a key-stone representing a
orse's head. A high square tower is connected with the
tifications, which seems to have been built in great haste,
cludes numberless fragments of edifices, mingled without
d entire columns placed horizontally among layers of
ies.

azars of Gallipoli are extensive, furnished with wares of
l, and kept with exquisite neatness. These sheltered mar-
livided into numerous streets, in each of which a distinct
erchants exhibit their goods. The doors of the shops open
lly; the upper half lifts into an inclined shade, or blind; and
half becomes a sort of counter, on which various mer-
is spread for inspection. The streets are covered with
r with a trellis interlaced with palm-leaves, of which the
l shade is welcome and picturesque.

e of the streets are all the goldsmiths, who expose trinkets,
lligree, and larger pieces of plate, which are less remarkable
of form than for the profusion of chasing and decoration.—
r street are the cordwainers, whose shops have a strikingly
nd agreeable appearance. Festoons of short boots, made
or red or green morocco, and glittering with an embroidery
nd silver thread, of pearls and of precious stones, hang in
urves from the architrave; while slippers perfumed with musk,
ermine, and magnificently stitched, are arranged in gaudy
the counter. Europe has no idea of the luxury and beauty of

aromatic odour to the pungent ill-prepared tobaccoes, which are imported by the Europeans. At these same shops are sold *henna*, or nail powder, with which the edges of the nails are dyed red; *surmé*, with which the lids of the eyes are dyed black; and a drug with which gray hair is dyed of a purplish dark blue, which by candle-light appears black. A sort of mineral soap, or fuller's earth, called by some writers *tena sigillata*, is also much sold for the use of women who bathe, to polish the skin, but of which the excessive application is said to have a contrary effect.

'The first time that I saw in the bazar the odd crowd of people of all nations and all complexions, each dressed after the fashion of his country, I fancied myself in the power of some genie of the Arabian tales. The oriental dresses, by their forms, their richness, and their lustre, are as magnificent as ours is paltry. An artist will incomparably prefer these wide and waving garments, enriched with furs or embroidery, these precious shawls and turbans of varied form, to our round hats, short tight coats, and little scraps of linen. Glaring colors are most in favor; and perhaps in warm climates, where nature gives to the very flowers a fiercer glow, this may be natural; the fresher shades, such as pink, pea-green, straw, and sky-blue, are worn by old men; while young people affect dusky and modest colors, or wear white.

'The shops in the bazars are hired very dear; the merchants pass the day there, during which the city seems deserted: but they return towards evening to their homes, which are scattered in various quarters, and then abandon the bazar to the care of watchmen.—Many of the houses are very pretty, and from within the sound of female voices, of gaiety and music, is often heard: but the women are not visible, the windows being opened only towards the interior courts or gardens.

'Of the public monuments, a conspicuous object is a fountain, built by a late visir at the corner of a cross-way. The dome is of gilt lead, with a projecting cornice. The lower part is divided into compartments decorated with motley arabesques and gilding. This dome is supported by marble pillars, some of an entire piece, and some stratified with various marbles: these pillars repose on a pedestal or dado, at the foot of which are the cocks and reservoirs which supply the water and vases for drinking and for ablution. Cisterns are provided, not only for the larger cattle, but for the dogs and cats. A gilded grating keeps the multitude at a distance from the central reservoir, which feeds many domestic fountains; and within this grating certain keepers attend, who hand vessels of water to passengers, or fill the cisterns for the drovers. One of these cisterns is made of an antient sarcophagus, adorned by rams' heads and garlands, in relievo, on which a Greek inscription is still visible.'

The fifth letter treats of the mechanic arts of the Orientals, and describes their water-mills. This subject introduces some of M. *Dufourny*'s learning, concerning the date of their origin; which he attempts to fix by means of an epigram of Antipater, analyzed in the Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions,

Vol.

ne historic recollections, respecting the ruins of the ed temple of Priapus: of which a view is also given. hth letter describes the inconveniences of the variable n the Bosphorus, and advises the cutting of a canal e sea of Marmora to the gulph of Melas.—The ap- o Constantinople is thus finely depicted in the eleventh

n San-Stefano, where we lay becalmed, we could perceive light in the northern horizon, which reddened the atmo- I cannot compare it to the frigid clearness of an *aurora* nor to the roseate tint of an evanescent sun-set, but rather eflection of red-hot lava through the smoke of a volcano. r to know the cause of this phænomenon brought us all on d kept us on the alert. Every puff of wind was the more to our extended sails, as the change of place might facili- observation. At length, about two hours before midnight, ble breeze sprang up, and we began to advance more and idly. On a sudden, balls of flame and pillars of fire seemed l from the deep, and to prop the lurid arch of glow which een beholding. These were the torches and lamps attached omes and minarets of Constantinople, for it was the night of illumination; and at every approximation, lights more and nerous emerged from the deep, and sparkled with more distinct as we advanced.

mosque of Sultan Achmet was remarked, above all the blic buildings, by its six aspiring minarets, each having three surrounded by luminous circles: they were united by gar- fire of different colours, of which the blaze acquired fresh whenever the wind gave them a gentle swing. These splendors, reflected from the marble walls and gilded domes, ring to the roofs like a fall of phosphoric snow, displayed s of the architecture, of which the base was buried in the a considerable volume of water. The purpose of the cistern was to form a reservoir of water for the public use, during the hot and dry weather, when the springs denied their supply to the aqueduct. Above the cistern, stood originally a palace, containing a library, baths, sheltered walks, and a statue-gallery: but these buildings have disappeared.

'Into this subterraneous and truly stupendous monument, we are invited to enter through an aukward opening, broken into the vaulted roof, to which a wooden staircase has been appended. In the time of Peter Gillius, he was, at this place, put on board a little boat, and rowed about amid the forest of columns. He assigns to the cistern a length of three hundred and thirty-six feet, and a breadth of one hundred and eighty. "The arches and walls," he says, "are built of brick, and covered with excellently hard mortar. These vaults are propped by three hundred and thirty-six marble columns, twelve feet asunder, in twelve rows of twenty-eight pillars each. Some of the capitals are sculptured, but the greater part remain rough. Above each capital is a square stone, representing an architrave, from which the arches spring in four directions. Water pours abundantly from the aqueduct into this cistern, which I have seen full, up to the capitals of the columns." — This description of Gillius is very exact; and all that I can add results from my having found the cistern dry. After having descended a few steps of the staircase, we come to a ledge, or landing, along the outer wall, of the same level with the capitals, which seems intended for the brink. We then descend another staircase which leads diagonally to the bottom; and some time elapses before the eye can here discover any thing through the darkness.

'The lamps of certain throwsters of silk, who here prepare the trams of gauzes which would break in a drier air, first excite attention; next, the forest of columns is seen, of which the long alleys, leading to an extremity wholly invisible, acquire an apparent infinitude. Hence the Turks appropriately call them *The Thousand Columns*. The arches are turned with Roman bricks, broad below, and narrower as they approach the centre of the vault; which was filled up, not by a key-stone, but by a small square window just sufficient to supply air and light within. All these apertures are now closed. The columns appear very near together, from being so uncommonly tall. The capitals are mostly unhewn, but the finished are decorated with the Acanthus leaves of the Corinthian order. A circular pedestal supports each column: if the water always covered these pedestals, the proportion would not be offensive, nor the excessive height so apparent. The architect imagined his average floor to be above the base of his columns.'

If the palace, which formerly overshadowed this cistern, was known among the antients by the name of the *Baths of Zeuxippus*, its gallery contained threescore statues of bronze, for the bases of which the poet Christodorus composed as many inscriptions; and if such was the ambulatory, the library, no doubt, corresponded with it in the luxurious profusion of its select and beautiful treasures. Where are the Institutes of modern times, which approach these lounging-rooms of polished antiquity?

In the eighteenth letter, a curious anecdote occurs, which displays the reserved manners of the Turks. A man of rank, desirous of a portrait of his wife, applied to the author, who in miniature-painting excelled any artist at Constantinople. M. CASTELLAN, in consequence, went to the house and painted the children, but could scarcely obtain from the lady the necessary condescension to sit down patiently, while he viewed her features for the purpose of delineating them.

Letter the twenty-fourth offers a translation of a new Persian tale, by which our novelists may profit. It is a Turkish legend, respecting the tower of Leander.

The probity of the common people at Constantinople is praised, and the following instance is given, in the twenty-fifth letter:

> 'One of our friends was bringing home from Constantinople a sack containing a thousand piastres. He had taken a boat, and, in stepping ashore at the stairs of Tophana, his sack burst, and the money rolled over the quay, and partly into the water. Immediately a crowd threw themselves pell-mell on the piastres, as if they had been scattered for a scramble, and the rowers jumped into the sea to pick up the few pieces which had fallen into it. The owner was at first uneasy, but he soon perceived every man bringing what he picked up to a bag, which the waterman had laid on a bench for that purpose. The European offered to distribute money among the most active: but they all refused, saying "we have only done our duty, and besides there would be too many to pay." The bag was then given to a hamal, or porter, to bring to the quarters which we occupied. On counting the money, expecting some deficiency, we found the whole thousand pieces safe. We repeated the telling, being somewhat incredulous, but they were all there.'

In London, a thousand dollars could not so safely be chucked into the street! To our shame be this truth spoken!

Various other interesting anecdotes occur, for which our readers must be referred to the work itself. The letters are twenty-six in number, and supply much of that instructive amusement which is expected from a book of travels. M. CASTELLAN had many peculiar opportunities of observation, and has known how to use them. His mode of writing aims at eloquence, without forsaking perspicuity; though diffuse, it is picturesque, and though neologic, it is unaffected: he could not avoid employing oriental words to designate oriental objects.

, because they interrupt the leading chain of events, and
ct that attention which the memory wishes to employ on
ain springs, are slightly passed over by the chronicler,
e not explained in all the detail which their actual im-
ce or eventual effect would in other combinations
e. It is a welcome addition to the mass of record, when
xcrescent incidents engage the labour of a special his-
. *Bayer* has in this way executed a history of Edessa;
annert, a history of the immediate successors of Alex-

A history of Carthage, and a history of the Ptolemaic
y, are topics which await and demand the illustration of
ssical antiquary.

ong the well-chosen themes of this class, may be num-
the 'Establishment, Progress, and Decay of the Gothic
rchy in Italy.' In the National Institute of France, this
elected in 1810 for the subject of a prize-disserta-
M. Naudet was the victorious competitor, and he
ys before the public the result of his toil. It forms a
cuous and lively work, including something more than
osophic biography of Theodoric, drawn directly from
dorus, and the fundamental authorities. Critical illus-
s from *Lebeau* and the modern commentators of this
occur: but the author's research is not all-pervasive.
ecret feeling of analogy, an opinion that resemblance
between the personal character, the political circum-
s, the conduct, and the fortunes of Theodoric and those
naparte, no doubt gave occasion to the choice of this
question, and diffuses over the whole narrative a peculiar
t. The desire of comparing and discriminating the two
erors of Italy, and coercers of the Popes, keeps alive a

Two introductions usher in the work, forming a pedigree of each of the nations whose commixture is destined for the subject of analysis. A concise history of the Goths to the time of Theodoric constitutes the first preface; and a similar narrative of the western empire, to the same period, forms the second. These rapid sketches of event are in good perspective; for they expand in detail as they approach the scene to be exhibited.

Theodoric himself first makes his appearance. His character is drawn with eloquence and with penetration; yet still we should have preferred to find this declamatory though critical appreciation at the end of the history, when the little facts were all before us, of which it is the result and the epitome. As, however, prize-dissertations are to be read aloud at the Institute, or at least begun there, it was necessary to commence by arresting attention; and it was also requisite to throw into the form of notes those little biographical facts and references to authorities, which among book-makers, who toil for the closet-reader, pass for the material parts of the work, but which would encumber the oratoric history of the lecture-room.

The birth of Theodoric is veiled in that obscurity which usually covers the early years of the illegitimate offspring even of kings. He was probably born in Pannonia, of the family or nation of the Amali, Walamirs, or Allemanni, (variations of the same name,) and was early attached by his father Theodomir to the army: but he was sent, when young, as a hostage to the Constantinopolitan emperor, Leo I. This residence in peculiar system of policy, concerted between the military genius of Theodoric and the ecclesiastic diplomacy of Cassiodorus, (the *Talleyrand* of the story,) which is so curiously analyzed by M. NAUDET. The desire of drawing parallelisms, and hinting analogies, has brought out with undue *relievo,* perhaps, some obscure regulations and unimportant facts: but they serve to shew how much more the men of every age are governed by the circumstances, than the circumstances by the men; and how necessarily human characters of the same class are forced into like situations, when those buoyant emergencies arise, in which, by common consent, the fittest man is called forth.

Theodoric used a stamp of four letters for his signature, from motives of expedition, probably, or in order that his procuration might at all times remain with his minister; and not, as some have inferred, from ignorance in writing. Yet he is said to have discouraged sending Gothic boys to Italian schools, by observing that those who had learnt to tremble at a rod would never dare to face a sword.

Montesquieu, in his Spirit of Laws, (l. x. c. 14.) says of Alexander: "He resisted those who wanted him to treat the Greeks as masters, and the Persians as slaves, and thought only of uniting the two nations. He adopted the manners of the Persians, in order not to tease them to adopt Greek manners. He left to the conquerors their civil laws, and often their domestic governors; putting his Macedonians at the head of the troops, but the natives at the head of the administration. The Kings of Persia had destroyed the temples of the Greeks, and of the Egyptians; these he repaired, but without revenging himself on the dominant religion." This passage, observes M. NAUDET, if we change the names *Macedonian* into *Ostrogoth, Persian* into *Roman,* and *Alexander* into *Theodoric,* paints with as much historic truth the treatment of Lombardy, as that of the Persian empire.

Theodoric adopted the civil law of the Romans. He procured both from the Greek emperor, and from the senate of Rome, an appointment to the sovereignty of Italy. He visited that city with great pomp, contributed liberally to the restoration and embellishment of the public monuments, and took before the senators a coronation-oath, which was engraven on tablets of brass, and triumphantly exhibited to the people. He distributed also many titles among the loyal gentry. Ecclesiastical property was in Italy exempt from various charges; insomuch that citizens made over their estates fraudulently to the church in order to elude the taxes. These immunities Theodoric abridged. He restored to the Jews those civil rights

which

Italy had already substituted for servitude.—Chapter the eighth discusses the police; and the ninth, the taxes of Theodoric.

An essay in the tenth chapter throws much light on the state of commercial intercourse, and describes Theodoric not as its enemy, but as its contemner. He diminished, however, those port-duties and local taxes on shipping, which so frequently drive trade out of an accustomed port, into a new one which is less expensive. He introduced laws which made forgery a capital offence:—he tolerated a legal interest of twelve per cent. on loans;—and he preserved to Italy a peace of thirty years.

The taste of Theodoric in art is discussed in the eleventh chapter; a new and useful subdivision of topic, tending to draw the attention of sovereigns to that part of reputation which depends on the erection of national monuments. Great expence was bestowed by Theodoric on the building and embellishment of public edifices; and he may be considered as the parent or introducer of the Gothic architecture. His taste had been formed at Constantinople; and he built near Verona a palace, of which a view is preserved on one of his coins, which is the earliest specimen known of that sort of building in Europe. He new-fronted some churches in the same style; and thus he founded among the Gothic kings and bishops a prejudice in favor of this architectural school.

Perhaps Theodoric valued practical talents higher than such as were merely ornamental. The employment of Cassiodorus, father and son, and of Boethius, the philosophising theologian, is honorable to his discrimination. So is the advancement in the church of the eloquent Ennodius, and of the historian Jornandes.—Neologisms, resulting from the tendency of languages to mingle, give a peculiar character to the writers of the age of Theodoric.—His daughter Amalasuenta married Eutharic, who was created a patrician of Rome, and who died shortly afterward, leaving an infant son. She was an accomplished woman, who willingly assembled in her drawing-room the travelled and the lettered, and could converse with them in German, in Latin, or in Greek.

Gibbon asks, "Why is Theodoric surnamed *Afer?*" M. NAUDET has not resolved the question. May it not be suspected that the Gothic title *Asa*, which was added to the name of Theodoric's predecessor Otho, in the form of *Odo-acer*, was in this case again employed, and, appearing first in the form *aser*, was mis-transcribed into *afer?*

The twelfth chapter narrates the severity of Theodoric against the Pope John, against Boethius, and against Symmachus, in the following terms:

P. 174. 'The Greek Emperor Justin had pure intentions, but his sagacity did not equal his piety. Carried by an ignorant zeal beyond the boundaries of justice, he resolved to destroy Arianism in his dominions; and all the churches belonging to the Arian sect were seized, and transferred to the use of Trinitarian Catholics. The Arians were thrust out of their employments, both in the court and in the army, and a test was devised to perpetuate the exclusion. An exception however, in favor of the Goths, was introduced into the edict.

'Seeing that his own moderation was not imitated by the Trinitarians, and being unable to check this persecution by his remonstrances, Theodoric thought of stopping it by threats. He commanded the Pope John to go to Constantinople, to sollicit for the Arians the free use of their places of worship, and to inform the Emperor Justin that, in case of refusal, he should retaliate on the Trinitarians of Italy. The Pope objected to a mission which was derogatory to his dignity: but Theodoric insisted, and the Pope set off, accompanied by five bishops and four patricians.

'The pontiff, however, on arriving at Constantinople, far from attempting to interrupt the scourge of Justin, encouraged him to prosecute his pious designs; and the Pope himself consecrated several of the conventicles of the Arians into churches. After having thus braved a sovereign whom he considered as the enemy of his creed, he had the courage to re-enter the territories of the king whom he had irritated. Possibly he relied on a revolt of the people; and report described this insurrection as imminent; but the Pope over-rated either the courage of the Romans or the mildness of Theodoric; and he found in Italy his reception different from that the traitorous conspiracy of his ministers, his ambassadors and his clergy, baffled the projected negotiation at Constantinople, he should have reflected that their conduct was excited by the public spirit of the Italians, and countenanced by the senate of Rome. The intolerance of bigotted men it was not for him to imitate. His resentment should have been content with the disgrace of his ministers.

These executions alienated, and deservedly alienated, the affections of Theodoric's subjects; and so loudly was the general dissatisfaction declared, that he despaired of obtaining, and therefore avoided to ask, the sanction of the Roman senate, when he adopted for his heir Athalaric (*Asa-Alaric*), a grandson, only eight years of age. A successor, whose inclinations were so uncertain, was ill adapted to collect around the old age of Theodoric that allegiance of which he stood in need; and the national antipathy of the Italians and Goths, now embittered by religious animosities, would probably have occasioned some explosion, analagous to the Sicilian Vespers, but that the death of Theodoric took place, and the opinions of Amalasuenta were believed to coincide with those of the Romish see. At least, she retained Cassiodorus, a relation of Symmachus, in the employment of the infant-king, restored to the heirs of Boethius their forfeited inheritance, and in every thing gave the ascendancy to Italian, not to Gothic principles. The senate of Rome was generously informed, in the official correspondence of government, (p. 201.) that it might ask what it would, and was sure to obtain it. The senate of Rome, however, was too much sunken to snatch at the gift of independence: but the clergy availed themselves of the trinitarian ascendancy, to make their order independent of the civil courts of justice. Boethius may have hoped that he was offering up his king to the freedom of his country, but his relations and partisans, who acquired entire authority at Ravenna, did nothing for liberty, but every thing for papacy and persecution. Athalaric died of early debauchery at eighteen, after which Amalasuenta married Theodatus, her cousin: but this chieftain, under pretext of adultery, thought fit to rid himself of a wife to whom he owed his throne. The Emperor Justinian resented his murderous profligacy, and sent against him Belisarius, who extinguished the Gothic monarchy.

This historic dissertation is both valuable and entertaining. For inquiry and for eloquence it falls short of the thirty-ninth chapter of Gibbon, which treats of the same period: but we have here many details concerning the administration and interior policy of Theodoric, which would have been misplaced, or have appeared disproportionately extensive, in the History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.

Montesquieu has written on the causes of the grandeur and decay of Rome; a work which, from some passages in the preface to the volume before us, M. NAUDET seems to have considered as his model. In compass and research, we trace some resemblance, and neither of the writers displays a wearisome pedantry. *Montesquieu*, in his treatise, makes great use of Appian, as *Macchiavel* had done of Livy, and as NAUDET has done of *Lebeau*:—but *Montesquieu* sat down to his investigation with a mind already trained to think, by familiarity with the great writers. Formed by nature to assert a place among them, he speaks with the brilliancy of genius, and the pregnant brevity of intellect: M. NAUDET attains only the proprieties of taste, and the praise of enlightened good sense.

ART. IV. *Biographie Universelle, &c.* i. e. Universal Biography, Antient and Modern; an entirely new Work, by a Society of Men of Letters. 8vo. Vols. I. and II. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 2s.

THE book-making industry of the present times has been less directed to the discovery of truth than to the diffusion of results. No effort is so conducive to the spreading of instruction, as the compilation of a dictionary, containing all the extant knowlege in a given department of literature; since, being accessible at any moment, just in the requisite degree, it fills up pedigree, *Bayle* published in 1697 a supplement, progressively extended to three folio volumes, intitled *Dictionnaire historique et critique;* which, to borrow the expression employed in the preliminary discourse of the authors of the production before us, 'has been the foundation of his imperishable glory.' *Bayle* taught the art of historic criticism, by exercising it with fearless sagacity; and he has compiled such hoards of various erudition, and fabricated such quiverfuls of acute argument for every controverted topic, that Europe has produced few writers of logical eminence who have not been visibly indebted to his arsenal. Besides notices strictly biographic, he attaches in the form of notes to his lives an analytical and critical survey of the publications of his heroes. These extracts are so well made, that they sufficiently preserve all that is permanent in argument, characteristic in diction, or conspicuous in erudition, and thus have superseded the entire works. He laid the ghosts of those controversialists whom he buried; they walk the earth no more, but in the aisles of his mausoleum.

Bayle's plan of writing lives is, however, too voluminous for an universal biography: it is best adapted for the ecclesiastic or philosophic prize-fighter, and less for the poet, the statesman, the historian, or the warrior. The opposite extreme of condensation was attempted in the *Onomasticon* of *Saxius*, who drily supplies the dates and authorities which respect the names in his catalogues, without prosing about any one beyond a mere definition of the nature of his exertions in life.

The true medium of length was hit by *Ladvocat*, who published his *Dictionnaire historique portatif* first in 1752, and lastly in 1779: but the neatness of *redaction* (to borrow a French term,) and the precision of information, which deservedly rendered his work so popular a manual in France, and indeed throughout Europe, cannot preserve it any longer. Every generation must make such books *anew*. The spirits of the subsequently dead combine in growing throngs, and call for admission: they appear among the living, pining and forsaken wanderers, fearful of being plunged into the flood of oblivion, and praying for that final rite of burial, the record of their deeds. A new Rhadamanthus, therefore, has arisen, or rather a whole tribunal of judges has been formed, who have undertaken to clear the Stygian shores of the fresh candidates for remembrance, to ascertain the doom of their manes, and to distribute those passports of immortality which conduct the bearer into the Tartarus, or admit him into the Elysium of celebrity.

To begin the book, three persons have been found out, of the name *Aa*. 1. *Peter von der Aa*, a barrister of Louvain, who acquired there in 1559 a professor's chair, who wrote a commentary *De privilegiis creditorum*, and who died in 1594. 2. *Peter von der Aa*, a bookseller at Leyden, who, in 1706, edited and published a *Collection de Voyages dans les deux Indes*. He also edited an atlas of 200 maps, engraved by his brother Henry, and rendered other services to geography. He died in 1730. 3. *Henry von der Aa*, a Lutheran minister born at Zwoll in 1718, educated at Leyden, and settled at Harlem, where he preached with popularity during fifty-one years. His sermons have been printed. The effort of his congregation to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of his induction, as a jubilee, occasioned the striking of a medal in honour of him by Holtrey, the fine execution of which has preserved the memory of the worthy pastor. He died in 1792.

Such is the sedulous display of Dutch merit. The two *Aagards*, on the contrary, Danes, who in the English General Biography have separate niches, are here lumped into one article; so as to create a danger of confounding the poet with the professor.

The fifth name inserted is that of *Svend Aagesen*, who in 1186 composed a chronicle intitled *Compendiosa Historia Regum Daniæ, à Skioldo ad Canutum* VI., and also *Historia Legum Castrensium Regis Canuti Magni*, a work which is important to the British antiquary. These tracts were edited in 1642 by Stephen Stephensen, who describes Aagesen as having been secretary to Archbishop Absolom. — The sixth name is that of *William van Aalst*, who was born at Delft, and excelled as a flower-painter, an art which his uncle taught him. He went to practise at Paris and at Rome, but in 1656 returned to his own country, and settled at Amsterdam, where his works were esteemed. A purse-proud burgomaster having treated *Aalst* superciliously, he said: "Your father bought you your gold chain, mine was bestowed on me for my merit," — exhibiting a chain and medal, which were given to him by the grand Duke of Tuscany, and which he always wore about his neck under his waistcoat. He died in 1658. — The seventh name is that of *Dirk vander Aare*, a Bishop of Utrecht, in the thirteenth century, who waged war with William Count of Holland, and who died in 1212.

After these seven names, comes the usual first step of the biographer, the high-priest *Aaron*. How favourable it is to celebrity that a man's name should consist of the earlier letters of the alphabet! In order to appear to outdo one another in completeness, the successive lexicographers are always especially alert to fill their primary specimen volume with names which have been hitherto overlooked; and thus an initial *a* becomes a sort of asses' bridge to fame. Were it not for this circumstance, the Bishop of Utrecht might have slumbered unnoticed beneath the monument in his own cathedral.

Among the earlier names, which were not ripe for insertion in the British General Biography, that of *Adelung* occurs; and we will translate this article as a specimen:

'*John Christopher Adelung*, a German grammarian and man of letters (*littérateur*), was born 30th August 1734, at Spantekow in Pomerania, was first educated at the gymnasium of Anclam, and afterward studied at the university of Halle. In 1759, he became a teacher at Erfurt, and two years afterward a professor at Leipzig; where he resided until 1787, and accomplished those vast labors which have proved so useful to the literature and the language of his country. At this period, he accepted the office of librarian to the Elector of Dresden, in which city he died on the 10th September 1806.

'*Adelung* alone did for the German language what the Academy della Crusca, and that of Paris, had done for the Italian and French tongues. His *Grammatico-critical Dictionary*, which appeared at Leipzig, in five quartos of 1800 pages each, between the years 1774 and 1786, is superior to the English Dictionary of Johnson, in the definition, filiation, order of meanings, and etymology of the words: but it abounds less with classical citations; whether, at the time of *Adelung*'s writing, fewer acknowleged classics were known in his country, or whether his prejudices in favor of the dialect of Upper Saxony led him systematically to neglect writers, in whose idiomatic or fanatics. This entertaining work has seven parts, published from 1785 to 1789. 6. *Table of Sciences*, a compendious encyclopedia of distinguished merit, in four parts, 1778—1788. 7. A *History of the Civilization of the Human Race*, 1786. 8. A *History of Philosophy*; 3 vols. 1788. These two works are not profound, but are luminous, and have served to indicate a path which has been pursued with more laborious detail by *Eichhorn* and his coadjutors. 9. *On German Orthography*, 1787. This work contributed much to introduce uniformity of custom; it prefers etymologic to acoustic grounds of decision. 10. *Primæval History of the Teutones*; 1806. 11. *Mithridates*, a comparison between divers languages; with the Lord's prayer in five hundred different tongues: 1806. Of this work, only the first volume was revised by *Adelung*: the impression of the rest, in consequence of the author's decease, was superintended by *John Severin Vater*. The additions made by M. *Vater* respect the Slavonian dialects, in which *Adelung* was not versed.

'*Adelung* was never married. His writing-desk, it was said of him, was his wife; and seventy volumes were his children. He loved good cheer, and willingly employed his spare cash in laying in a stock of foreign wines; so that his cellar, which he called his *Bibliotheca selectissima*, contained forty different sorts of wine. A robust constitution permitted him to labour much with little relaxation: while a frank gaiety, an eloquent command of knowlege, and a love of hospitable intercourse, attached to him numerous friends. His heir was a nephew, who became preceptor in the imperial house of Russia, and was ennobled by Alexander.' (Villers and Stapfer.)

The remark is obvious, that something less of biographic fact than curiosity requires is included in this life: but the dates and bibliographic notices are punctiliously exact; and the criticisms are equitable and precise. They have suffered in our hands a little abridgement, where they appeared needlessly diffuse. — This character applies to very many lives in the collection. — Several engraved portraits are inserted, and among others that of *Addison*. His works are estimated with less applause than they usually gain in this country, but in a manner more likely to obtain the sanction of Europe than our national partiality: something of contempt is expressed for his several labours. — The portrait of *Arius* is given, surely without sufficient authority. — All the articles in this work are re-written, even when the matter had been collected before. A large proportion of them are wholly original, and very elaborate: especially the oriental biographies, which are numerous, and are attentively executed with appropriate erudition by *Langlès*, *Jourdain*, *Salaberry*, and others. We translate that of a learned Hindoo:

'*Amara-Singha* was a counsellor of the celebrated Rajah Vikramaditeya, who flourished in the first century before Jesus Christ, and is the author of the most exact and complete Sanskrit dictionary which we possess. It is intitled *Amara-Kôcha*, (the treasure of Amara,) and is divided into sections, not alphabetically arranged. The names of the gods are placed by themselves; as are those of the stars, of the elements, of impalpable objects, of sciences, of colors, of the earth and mountains and rivers, of plants, of animals, of tribes and occupations of men, of sacrifices, of agriculture, &c. The concluding sections, called *Nanartha-Varga*, contains words of more than one signification. Adverbs and indeclinable words form a separate section, intitled *Avia-Varga.*—This celebrated dictionary is written in verse, and has been translated into various languages of the east, as the Tamoul and Malabar. In the south of India, a gloss upon it exists, called *Tamouch-Kootta.* Father *Paolina di san Bartolomeo* edited the first part of it at Rome in 1798, with Tamoul letters. The superscription is *Amara-Singha, sectio prima, de Coelo, ex tribus ineditis codicibus manuscriptis. Romæ, apud Fulgonium.* Although this volume be inconsiderable in bulk, it is not one of the least important works of the learned editor. A copy of the entire Dictionary exists in the imperial library of Paris, Nos. 33, 38, 39. of the *Catalogue des Manuscrits Sanskrits.*' (LANGLÈS.)

Among the lives of artists, we find a copious harvest of new matter. Some articles connected with English history are drawn up by the celebrated *Lally-Tolendal;* for instance, the life of Queen Anne, which is too long for us to extract, but which includes some original appretiation. Many other labourers share this department; and such is the anxiety for completeness, that our Newgate calendar has been ransacked, and a niche is made for *Eugene Aram* *. The life of *Ardern*, a surgeon of the fourteenth century, is taken from Aikin's General Biography. That of *Arnold*, the American General, has the signature of *Botta.*

In the distribution of labor, the editor has placed medical lives under the care of medical men, military lives under military men, mathematicians under mathematicians, and scholars under scholars, allotting to each line of life its appropriate guardian genius. He has not, however, attended to the order of nations or languages, so as to confide to a German contributor all the required compilation from German hoards; or to an Italian, the distillation from Italian wash. This plan of dividing the task of composition is judicious; and the partition is made with care and skill. The lives of the Greek classic writers are in general written by *Clavier*†, an eminent scholar and philologist; who, in his bibliographic notices, displays great knowlege of editions. That of Aristotle is the joint product of *Clavier*, and *Cuvier.* The talent and experience of a comparative anatomist were necessary to estimate correctly the value of Aristotle's writings concerning the natural history of animals; and this assistance of *Cuvier* is called in exactly at the right place, so as to furnish a complete, luminous, and precise estimate both of the philosophy and the zoology. Of Portuguese and even of Spanish lives, perhaps, some deficiency may be charged against the work: but a comprehensive and a penetrating glance has surveyed both Germany and Italy. It is easier for us to indicate superfluity than omission. A needless biography is that of the pseudonymous author *Charles André*.—We find nothing seditious, but an absence of servility in the book, which is honourable to the independent spirit of literature. In the life of a Short-hand-writer, a sigh is breathed that this art, which began to be cultivated in France during the existence of the Constituent Assembly, is not likely to be wanted; and the life of *Anthoine*, a deputy to the States-general, who died in 1793, seems to be inserted only to record that he bequeathed his property to the nation, which the Convention declined to accept. Means are also found to praise the Catos of republicanism under an august emperor; and the memory of excellence is the seed of virtue not in literature only, but in public spirit and public conduct. These biographies are, however, rather too concise to have much effect as models; and they err, perhaps, in overlooking those sides of a character which are not turned towards the reading world: but still they have not the bony meagreness of those in *Meusel's Gelehrtes Deutschland*.

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* Following, indeed, the injudicious example of Dr. Kippis, in the Biographia Britannica.

† See the first Article in this Appendix.

Much of bibliography has been mingled in the accounts of men of letters; and the dates of their publications constitute in fact the records of their deeds. Of antient writers, the best editions are here critically noticed; and in general a predilection is shewn for illustrating the memory of the writer, of the artist, and of the intellectual classes of men. "Without literary history," says Bacon, "that of the world would resemble a statue of Polyphemus; the part would be wanting which is most fitted to express the spirit and character of the person."

Dr. Aikin's General Biography is at present, we believe, the best European biographical dictionary extant*. In that work, a judicious temper admits, rejects, applauds, or reproves; and brilliancy is not suffered to snatch the panegyric from utility. This new French undertaking, which we now announce, threatens a formidable competition. It promises to be more *critical*, in consequence of the complete command of libraries which the Parisians possess, and which enables them at once to verify every

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* A considerable time has elapsed since we introduced to our readers any of the progressive volumes of this undertaking: but we have not intended to overlook it. We have lately heard, however, with regret, that the prosecution of it is become doubtful. Should it continue, we hope to resume our examination of it.

question of date or fact concerning early editions or scarce books; and it promises to be more *comprehensive*, partly in consequence of its appearing later, partly because of the greater facility of continental correspondence, which the political and geographical situation of Paris confers on its men of letters, and partly from a prodigiously numerous co-operation, which secures to each department of celebrity a more extensive circumspection.

On the other hand, as the French dictionary will be very compact, this object must be accomplished by a sacrifice of biographic detail, which is rather to be excused as a necessary evil than positively to be approved. Secondly, it will be less susceptible of correction: Dr. Aikin and his coadjutors have the attention to put down at the foot of their biographies the authorities consulted, by which means the reader can re examine any questionable point: but here every thing reposes on the "*I say so*" of the writer. Thirdly, the names connected with sacred or theological literature are in this work approached with a timid bigotry, to which the English editors have shewn themselves superior. The ecclesiastic *Tabaraud*, who made a French abridgment of Leland's Deistical Writers, is the person employed in this department, and he seems to be an utter stranger to the principles of historic criticism.

Possibly, Dr. Aikin will ere long undertake to superintend an octavo edition of his vast labour, and will incorporate at the proper places the additional materials here supplied. Our language ought not long to want a collection of lives which in general display neatness of compilation, precision of criticism, and a command of the most recondite erudition. The completion of this work will be an honour to France and a service to Europe.

ART. V. *Histoire de France, &c.* i. e. The History of France, from the Revolution in 1789; by F. E. TOULONGEON, Ex-constituent, Member of the National Institute, of the Legion of Honour, and of the Legislative Body. Vols. VI. and VII.* 8vo. Paris. 1810. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s.

IT gives us pleasure to resume the task of noticing the historical labours of this able, manly, and judicious writer; in whose breast, we doubt not, the same impartiality which recommended the former volumes continues to predominate, though the pages before us do not display that quality in the degree in which it has formerly shone. We do not observe that the author's statements are stained with gross misrepresentations, but omissions and disguises are discoverable, the reason of which it is not difficult to divine. When the chief ruler may be supposed not to quarrel with the truth, it is here impartially and fully told: but it is impossible not to be convinced that, in this narrative, when truth and Napoleon clash, the former is obliged to give way.

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* For Vol. V. see M. R. Vol. liii. (Appendix) p. 465.

The sixth volume contains the account of the year 1796; an epoch which illustrated the arms of France and the origin of the Directory. Of this body and the individuals who composed it, and its government, the author gives a very interesting and (we believe) a true account. In establishing the Directory, he says,

> 'It was attempted to realize a system of balance and counterpoize, and to keep the powers in equilibrio: but this balance and equilibrium occasioned repose and inaction. It was forgotten that, while the nation chose men of opposite parties and characters, it had lost sight of that which was to give the counterpoise a tendency to some common end; so that this management of opposite pretensions, which was the result of a treaty between the contending parties, was more injurious to the public interests than would have been the preponderance of a dominant party, which, when it has established itself, has an interest in good order and regular government. There was nothing in the personal character of either of the five Directors to remedy this evil. Of the five, two were taken out of each of the contending parties. The fifth, who was *La Reveillère*, was appointed in order to be the Moderator between the others. It was not any great qualities or eminent talents which caused him to be selected for that high situation. Those who promoted his elevation were contented with the rectitude of intentions and principles which he had displayed in the Constituent Assembly. They considered him as possessing the estimable qualities of an enlightened citizen; and they believed that, if he had not himself sufficient discernment to direct affairs, he was able to discover what was true in discussion, and to bring over the majority to that side. Public opinion was at this time extremely favourable to him. During the Convention, he had avoided the excesses of each of the parties, and secured the esteem of both. It was with difficulty that he was induced to assume, in circumstances so critical, a task to which he believed himself to be unequal: but, observing that every thing wore a better appearance, and that the administration of the Directory succeeded better abroad and at home, he began to ascribe this effect to the functions of Moderator which he had exercised; he then placed confidence in his own powers; and unfortunately he employed them in a new direction. He fancied that he had framed a system which would reach the source of the prevailing evils; and he declared himself the head of a religious sect. He caused the doctrine of the Theophilanthropists to be promulgated; a sort of natural religion which was not relished by the multitude. Failing in this attempt, he gave way to the zeal of a sectary. His temper, naturally good, became soured; he resigned himself to the advice of passionate men, who fanned his self-love, and exaggerated his pretensions; he adopted their resentments, and

not regard him as a dangerous adversary: but he had been a member of the Committee of Public Safety; and it was perhaps to the simplicity which characterized his official functions, that he retained the esteem of the nation, although he had belonged to this dread committee; at least, he was never required to defend himself for having been attached to it.'

It is stated by this author that the Directory was scarcely established, when it perceived itself to be surrounded by enemies. When the great secondary places were to be given away, they were disputed by persons of pretensions of all the parties; and when filled, the pretenders who were rejected became hostile to the Directory. Most of them were members of the Councils; each of them rallied his partisans around him; and they all united in opposing the Executive Body, which had, as they thought, under-rated their claims. This is not a favourable picture of a purely representative body, although it must be admitted that the account is not improbable. M. TOULONGEON considers the directorial government as divided into two epochs, the one prior and the other subsequent to the 18th of Fructidor.

'The Directory,' we are informed, 'at its accession, found the republic in a state of great distress with regard to the armies, the civil government, the administration, and the finances. Until the 18th Fructidor, the government was employed in repairing the decaying parts of the civil edifice, and succeeded; victory crowned their arms, the troubles of the interior were appeased, the law reigned, and the constitution was in full vigour; the factitious famine which had harassed the metropolis disappeared; and the nation for a moment enjoyed the blessings of a free government at home, and consideration abroad.' Alas! how short was this period! It is a moment to be regarded with interest, and which invites mature consideration: 'but every thing changed,' says the author, 'after the events of the 18th of Fructidor. Without going into detail, it appears that forms as opposite to the laws, as they were repugnant to reason and policy, were substituted in the room of those which the constitution prescribed.'

We consider that part of the present volumes to which we have adverted, as more worthy of attention than the exploits of two young warriors who were at this time attaining the highest renown in very different careers, and who were displaying dissimilar rather than unequal abilities; we mean *Hoche* and *Bonaparte*. A very favourable picture is given of the former, and we are not left to doubt a moment that his conduct and judgment were of the highest order. As to the latter, whatever we may think of the man, neither the present nor any narrative that we have seen can keep pace with the rapidity of his achievements; and yet he finds intervals to negotiate treaties, and to frame political constitutions. Even *Kleber*, who deserved command in a better cause, observed, when writing to another General, "We count, my dear General, our marches by our battles, and our battles by our victories:" but of the cruelties and treacheries which entered into the system of the rapid conqueror, and which true history has since brought to view, the volumes before us are as silent as the dispatches of the hero himself. We therefore abstain from making any extracts from this portion of the work, as having nothing of novelty in it, and as being that which the least admitted of any freedom on the part of the author.

The latter of these volumes is styled an *Appendix*. It consists of short accounts of the subjugation of Swisserland, the expedition into Egypt and the reduction of that country, the breaking up of the Congress at Radstadt, the ephemeral subversions of the Roman state and of the kingdom of Naples, the re-conquest of Italy by the Austrians and Russians, the expedition to the Helder, and the return of *Bonaparte* to France. These narratives are neat and luminous, but very concise, and present nothing which is worthy of our notice. M. TOULONGEON, like every other French author of the present day, indulges in a strain of bitter invective whenever England is the subject, and launches out into extravagant panegyric whenever his Emperor is introduced.

ART. VI. *Questions expliquées pour les jeunes Officiers*, &c. i. e. Questions explained for Young Officers, respecting Field-fortification; and the Fortification, Attack, and Defence of Places of War or Fortresses. By M. FOSSÉ, formerly Lieutenant-Colonel of the 105th Regiment. 12mo. Paris. 1810. Imported by De Boffe. Price 3s. sewed.

WE learn that this small work was originally composed for the instruction of youth who were intended for officers in the line, by way of question and answer, with regard to the materials usually employed in constructing various field-works, as fascines, saucissons, earth or sand-bags, gabions, hurdles, palisades, &c.; with the modes of making and using them in such constructions, as well as to the names, parts, and forms of these works themselves: together with the particulars relative to permanent fortification, regular and irregular, and the attack and defence of places. The author observes, in his preface, that the knowlege most useful for an officer is that of field-fortification, for which in time of war he has occasion every moment, whether he causes to be executed the plans which the engineers have traced out or those which he himself has drawn; and that he ought also to possess a general knowlege of those works which are erected in fortifying towns or cities, in order that he may be able to direct, with the more certainty and skill, the movements, with the execution of which he is intrusted. We are then informed that this collection of questions, which, for reasons mentioned, the writer was induced to compile in 1778, is drawn from the best treatises on the art of war, according to the principles of Marshal *de Vauban*. It is divided into four chapters, the first of which treats on Field-fortification, which is distinguished into three sorts, the *Little*, the *Mean*, and the *Great*.—The *Little*, he says, consists of small works, as *épaulemens*, *redans*, redoubts, trenches, traverses, *batardeaux*, *abbatis*, *criques* or ditches dug in marshes to interrupt the passage of them, pits or *trous de loup*, &c.—The *Mean*, he defines to be a collection of closed redoubts, joined by means of lines, straight or broken.—The *Great*, he says, is formed by bastions joined with curtains. He makes it also comprehend small forts or *Fortins*, and the works that are thrown up on the outside of castles, villages, boroughs, and small open towns.

Chapter II. relates to the fortification of places, divided into *natural* and *artificial*. The former is defined to be that which results from the very nature itself of places; as the situation of one on the summit of a mountain, the avenues or roads to which can easily be shut up; and positions protected by declivities, or places surrounded by inaccessible morasses. *Artificial Fortification* is separated, as in other treatises, into regular and irregular. The author calls fortification *regular*, 'when the figure of the place is a regular polygon, and all the sides of the *enceinte* are equally fortified;' and it is *irregular*, 'when the figure of the place is an irregular polygon, and has each of its sides fortified on the principles of regular fortification;' that is to say, has each front regularly constructed, or has the faces of the bastions, as well as the flanks, equal to each other. This definition of irregular fortification, however, is far from being legitimate or correct: because it frequently may, and will indeed oftener than otherwise, be necessary to make both the faces and the flanks, even in the same front, *unequal*, in order to proportion, as it ought to be in every construction both in permanent and in temporary or field-works, the fire of each part to that which the enemy can bring against it. In the latter kind, whenever they are of any extent, and do not merely consist of small redoubts or minute works, it is almost always necessary to do this in order to occupy the ground properly. Although the due occupation of ground by such constructions, on Military C

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and though we cannot, for an obvious reason, present a full account of his rambles, we shall consult the amusement of our readers by selecting such occasional sketches as we may deem worthy of transcription.

The next place of importance which M. MILLIN intended to visit was Nice: but, as no road leads directly from Hyères to that city, the traveller was obliged first to return to Toulon. Hence following the line of coast to Frejus, he traversed roads bordered with olive-trees and hedges of pomegranates; and having passed a plain richly decked with vineyards and corn-fields, he reached the mountain of Averne, which, in addition to its picturesque scenery, abounds with mineral productions. As he walked along, he plunged at every step up to the ancle in a sort of micaceous sand resembling silver and gold, which, by reflecting the rays of the sun, produced the most brilliant effect. So rich do these sands appear, that a representative of the people, 'not versed indeed, (as the author observes) in the study of mineralogy, crossing this mountain in 1793, eagerly collected a quantity of this beautiful sand, and carried it with him to the Convention as a proof of the negligence of the administrators of the department of the Var, who trod under their feet treasures adequate to sustain the expence of the war against all the kings of the universe.' After the mineral, the traveller enumerates the vegetable riches of the district: but these objects must not detain us. We shall not, however, omit to advert to a circumstance which rather interrupted M. MILLIN's herborizing. Ascending a hill from which he obtained a view of the sea, 'three English cruizers were perceived in chase of several small French vessels. The battery on the coast fired on the enemy: but we were alarmed at the danger to which our barks were exposed.' These fears appear to have soon subsided; for we next hear of the travellers dining comfortably on the brink of a fountain under the shade of some mulberry-trees. After this repast, they proceeded from the antient castle of La Molle to Cogolin, and thence to Saint Tropez, the country about which is very sterile: but, the air being sharp and pure, it is never infested by the plague, though at times this disease visits the adjoining districts. At Saint Tropez, some small trading-ships are built, but fishing is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. As this town contained nothing curious, the Inspector of the Customs proposed to amuse the travellers with a sight of the drawing of the *madrague*, (or net for catching the tunny-fish,) and offered to accompany them. 'The little bark which we had occasionally used, stretching along the coast, and taking advantage of the wind, had escaped the English corsairs, and arrived as soon as

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hoisting a flag. Vessel
assembled; some of th
drive them towards the
At St. Tropez, and or
placed in a spiral form
always dead, because i
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them. *George, the kin*
fishermen: we followed
of oil on the sea, and en
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for they are easily frightened, and the firing of the batteries placed along the coast appears to have kept them at a distance.

'Two *madragues* are at Saint Tropez; and the spot on which they are placed is rented of the Government at 10,600 francs. Their maintenance is moreover an object of considerable expence. Two nets are necessary to each, because sometimes a shark entangles himself in them and breaks them; they are also exposed to other accidents; and unless means of replacing them were provided, the fishing must be discontinued. Each net costs 3000 francs, or about 150l. sterling.

'For the net of the *corpou*, 250lbs. of cork are required, which sells at 15 francs per quintal or hundred. This net sometimes remains for a year or two in the sea: but those which form the internal chambers and the *chasse*, or entrance-passage, are changed every six months. The sea, in the spot on which the *madrague* is fixed, is forty fathoms deep.

'The tunny, called *scombre thon*, or *scomber thynnus*, Linn., has been in request from times the most remote: the writings of the antients often make mention of it; and its figure is *consecrated* on their medals. The Romans held it in the highest estimation as an article of food; and Pliny has not deemed it beneath him to notice the precedence which they gave to certain parts of this animal over the rest; they preferred the flesh of the belly, and this is the part of which epicures in the present day are most fond.

'The tunny is eaten fresh in all places to which it can be conveyed sweet. Different methods of keeping it are employed. The antients, who were acquainted with several processes, called the salted tunny *milandryum*, (Plin. xxvi. 7.) because it resembled in colour the shavings of the oak somewhat burnt. Now the practice is to cut the tunny into slices, which are salted, or rather pickled, being dipped in oil after it is impregnated with the salt. The oil which is detached from these fish, when they are washed, and which is pressed out before they are seasoned, is used by tanners. The price of the pickled tunny varies according to the quantity furnished by the madragues.'

After this view of the tunny-fishery, which is an object of as much importance in the Mediterranean as the herring and salmon fisheries are in the north of Europe, M. MILLIN and his suite crossed the Gulf of Grimaud, the *Sinus Sambracitanus* of the Romans, and went to Fréjus; a port which will be celebrated in the future history of France, since here it was that *Bonaparte* landed from the frigate *Le Muron*, on his eventful return from Egypt. From Fréjus the travellers sailed to Antibes; which port, with that of Nice, the next place of importance that was visited, engages much notice. Indeed, the accounts of it fill many pages: but as this city, with the surrounding districts, has been often described, we shall pass over this portion of the tour; only mentioning, *en passant*, that excursions by water were made from Nice to Menton, Monaco,

and

an English vessel, as it
first village on the road,
of conducting funerals,
all the towns of Prove
which was about to be
fragrant flowers, by wh
ceremony was much rel
teron, Aix, &c. are now
nufactures, buildings, c
ments of Marseilles are th
we must refer the reader
fund of information: wit
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us to indulge in extracts
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pleasure : but the fair of
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through Saint Remy, th
explored; after which, the

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celebrated in the annals of c
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with beds, while the proprie
tents himself with the garret.
are let to the

ants of these two streets enjoy the advantage of having, in their turn, the traders in drapery for their tenants, who pay the highest prices for their lodgings, because they deal to a large amount. The sellers of linen goods are situated near the gate of the Rhône, in a part called *la Placette.* The Jews, during the fair, never quit the street which bears their name, and which includes, of course, the street of the *Cordeliers* ; they occupy only the middle of this street, the top and the bottom being filled with leather-sellers.

' Not only are the shops tenanted, but sheds covered with canvas are placed before the walls; and a profit is drawn even from heaps of stones, which are also let, and on which articles of mercery are exposed to sale. The tradesmen suspend on cords, which cross the street, little square flags, displaying their name, their place of residence, and the nature of their business. The motley colour and the different appearance of these flags, their disposition, and the variety of their inscriptions, form a *coup d'œil* truly singular.

' The town is too small to contain all who repair to it at this season ; the people therefore erect in a few days a second town, of wood, which has also its squares, streets, and suburbs. On the banks of the river, between the gate *Roquebrune* and that of *Beauregard,* is a large meadow, surrounded by high trees, called *St. Magdalen's Meadow* ; on this spot are constructed a great number of cabins made with planks ; and tents also are here pitched for the fair. The view would be more pleasing if more pains were taken with the exterior of these huts, and if the decoration of them was more uniform, like the booths of our antient fairs of St. Germain and St. Laurent, and like the shops which are appropriated to the public exhibition of articles of industry ; yet, though these barracks are constructed without taste or neatness, the combination as a whole is not displeasing.

' While the houses, cabins, and tents, on the meadow, are filled with an immense population, the river is covered with barks, in which multitudes have their habitation ; and each of which has a place assigned to it according to its form, the goods which it carried, and the country whence it comes. The French barks assemble at Arles. The master of that vessel which arrives first salutes the town of *Beaucaire* with the musket or pistol which he has on board ; and as a reward for his quick sailing, a sheep is presented to him in due form ; the stuffed skin of which, with streamers attached to it, is elevated on the mast, to announce the honour which he has obtained. The other barks, according to the order in which they arrive, also make a discharge of musquetry. Here we see the Spanish pinks, chiefly those from Catalonia ; the feluccas of Genoa, which are known by their beautiful colours ; the shallops of Marseilles ; the boats of Upper Languedoc, of Bordeaux, of Brittany, and of several ports on the ocean, which arrive by the canal of communication between the two seas ; while the barks of Lyons, Dauphiny, Swisserland, and Germany, fall down the Rhône. The merchandise of Upper Provence is conveyed in carts. Besides these barks, rafts arrive, loaded with planks, joists, beams, and hoops. The barks which descend the Rhône are constructed of slight planks, which are easily taken to pieces and

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July, by the prefect of the d
as Bartholemew Fair is pro
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ceeds on horseback through the pr
meadow, and along the wharf, w
sound of military music, that the t
selves of the accustomed privilege
makes this proclamation, he is
All merchandise that is unloaded b
to the ordinary duties.

'On the morrow of St. Magdalen's
named,) a grand mass is celebrated
by a procession, in which was form
in solid silver ; at present, however,
with a figure of gilt wood. All ra
give to it a striking appearance.

'It is impossi

fashions, and hear every kind of idiom and *patois*. It seems as if a combination of all nations and the confusion of tongues had taken place.

'This tumult continues principally during day-light. In the evening, the people go to the menageries, puppet-shews, feats of horsemanship, rope-dancers, or to the theatre, which is established in the tennis-court. People of fashion resort to the meadow, where the joyous country-dance or the lascivious waltz every where prevails, and on every side the sound of instruments is heard.

'At Beaucaire, almost every article that can be imagined is sold, even to antiques. One shopkeeper offered for sale a superb cameo representing Cleopatra and Antiochus of Syria.'—

'The privileges of the fair do not in fact extend beyond three days: but the frequenters of it contrive to prolong the term by joining to it the festivals of St. Magdalen and St. James. In 1767, in consequence of an inundation of the Rhône, the Farmer-general refused to allow one day more: but the Intendant found means to obtain it, by the celebration of the feast of St. Anne. Since that period, the fair has lasted six days, from the 22d to the evening of the 28th of July; and if a Sunday comes immediately before or after, it continues one day more; then the cessation of the privileges of the fair is proclaimed, in the same manner as the opening, but not with the same air of gaiety.

'This year, the fair had been better attended than in the preceding. The Spaniards particularly did much business, and made their payments with ease. Silk and woollen goods were the objects most in request. We passed three days very agreeably, and have to congratulate ourselves on our kind reception by M. *Delphonse*, prefect of Gard.'

Though M. MILLIN had been amused with this gay and busy scene, he found here, as in other instances, that human pleasures and hopes end in sorrow and disappointment:

'On the third day of the fair, it began to rain, and in a few hours the Rhône overflowed; a circumstance which had not happened for several years. Not only was much merchandise spoilt by the rain, but the water inundated the meadow, carrying away huts, coffee-houses, &c., so that lamentation and cries were every where heard. The dyke which separates the bridges of boats was entirely covered, cutting off the communication by Tarascon, and obliging the traders to send goods round by Arles.'

We have transcribed a part of the account of this fair, to shew the state of internal trade in France, and to exhibit a striking trait of the people who so largely blend pleasure with their business. We have many fairs in England in which more gaiety than trade is carried on: but in our great fairs, such as Weyhill, &c. buying and selling exclude all ideas of dancing.

Various other places in the south of France are noticed at large, as Tarascon, Arles, Nismes, &c.; the numerous remains of the magnificence of the antient Romans, who long occupied this

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rambles, which extended
the ocean. It must suffice t
pellier, Narbonne, Carca
Barèges and Luz, at the f
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Velay; after having flowed through le Forez, its bulk increases so as to render it navigable; it then traverses part of Burgundy and the Nivernais, where it receives the waters of the Allier; it runs from east to west, from Orleans to Nantes, where its bed is enlarged; and, eleven leagues lower down, it empties itself into the sea. The benefits which it renders to commerce and industry are incalculable; hence it is bordered by rich and populous cities, and its banks announce fertility and abundance. For a long time they who inhabit its shores have done all in their power to promote the safety of its navigation: but the quantity of loose sand which it carries down, with fragments of quartz and coal, which are often mixed together, renders its course uncertain and deceptive, especially from Orleans to the sea. To prevent the dangers which may arise from shoals, which shift with the frequent variations of the current, watermen are constantly employed in placing little branches of willows on these shoals, and in preceding large barges, which are commonly united to each other in numbers more or less considerable: a little boat always attends them, with a pilot to lay down the buoys. As its course, though sinous, does not double on itself, the vessels ascending the river avail themselves of those days in which the wind blows from the sea, and fills their large sails: but the variableness of the winds precludes any calculation of the length of time which will be employed in this navigation. To confine this capacious river to its bed, a large dyke has been constructed on both its banks, from Blois to Angers: which immense work is called *les levées,* or the *causeways.* Its origin is traced back to the time of Charlemagne, and from that period care has been taken to keep it in repair. The height of these causeways is twenty-five feet, and their breadth is forty; the middle is paved or gravelled, and the sides are protected by parapets of earth, which are in several places sadly damaged. It is easy to perceive that a road so winding and narrow, continued to so great an extent, must be dangerous; and it often happens that melancholy accidents occur in dark nights, during thick fogs, when the horses are frightened, and when, among the multitude of drivers with which the causeway is covered, some will be careless and others are inexpert or imprudent.'

On the banks of the Loire we must take our leave of this traveller, as far as his details are concerned; not, however, without regretting our inability to attend to the various characters in which he appears, and to exhibit the various learning which he displays. Being a celebrated scholar and antiquary, many of his pages are devoted to descriptions of libraries, museums, and the remains of antient art. Indeed, he informs us, in the concluding paragraph, that 'his principal object has been to make literary and historical researches in the several places which he visited, to specify the monuments of antiquity which still remain, and particularly to point out those which have escaped the notice of former travellers;' and in the execution of this task, he has manifested the most satisfactory proofs of zeal and activity. A wish to collect all ne-

books of its class betr
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ART. VIII. *Histoire d*
A History of the Prog
DOUIN, formerly Secr
Commissary, Historio
8vo. pp. 1841. Paris.

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the history of the military administration of France during the last two centuries, the first volume being the only one that treats of the systems of other nations: neither is any part of the detail occupied by the events of the Revolution; M. Audouin having very judiciously avoided this delicate ground, and taken leave of his subject at the date of 1789, with a high-flown panegyric on his Imperial master. Without participating in these sanguine effusions, we shall endeavour to follow the author over the extensive field of his labours; extracting the substance of those remarks which appear most likely to convey a clear idea of the book, and connecting them occasionally with observations of our own.

In explaining the plan of his work, the writer makes a particular distinction between the period which preceded and that which followed the invention of gunpowder. The revolution produced by that discovery in the art of war was so complete, as to render all previous practice a matter of mere curiosity; and he purposes, therefore, to be brief in that portion of the art which can no longer be rendered professionally useful. On the innovations subsequent to the use of gunpowder, he declares an intention of treating more at large; and of recording with clearness and precision every material change, as well in the manner of fighting as in the details of military administration. His preliminary section contains several good observations on the origin of war. To expect method and foresight in the hostile encounters of an early stage of society would imply, he says, an ignorance of the elements of those rude associations, and of the unrestrained play of the passions in a state of nature. Even in a farther progress to civilization, the rules of war are found to vary from age to age; or rather, it may be said that war long continues to be carried on without any determinate system, and to exhibit only the ruin of property and the mortality of our species, without suggesting to the survivors any greater dexterity in the work of destruction. Progress in the art of war is dependent on the progress of society in pacific occupations. The labours of government in the grand point of provisioning armies are regulated by the state of trade, agriculture, and finance; and it is often necessary to forget the soldier for the purpose of considering the labourer, the mechanic, and the merchant.

The first of M. Audouin's four volumes is appropriated to the history of war previously to the use of gunpowder, being made to comprehend both the tactics of the antients and the rude warfare of the dark ages. Beginning with the manner of levying troops, he reminds us that among the Jews every male was liable to serve from the age of twenty-one. Among

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establishment of baking, as a separate business, may be said to form an important æra in the history of military exertion. Bread was the chief food of the antients; the consumption of butchers' meat in quantities being little known in those early ages. With regard to the drink of the soldiers of antiquity, we must not form our conception of its quality or its abundance from the odes of Anacreon and Horace. Water was long the sole drink of the Roman military; and when a portion of wine was added, its quality was very different from that of the Alban or Falernian grape. They received, however, a distribution of one kind which is unknown in modern armies, — oil, the application of which to the body was considered as strengthening and salutary. It was deemed useful in diminishing the danger of contagious diseases, and in enabling the troops to pass with less hazard from one climate to another. By increasing the suppleness of the joints, also, it was believed to facilitate the carriage of a soldier's burden, which consisted in antient times not only of a helmet, shield, and javelins, but of bread and intrenching implements. — Regular pay to the military was a system long unknown both in Greece and Rome. Among the Athenians, Pericles was the first to recommend it; and he proposed that the treasure acquired from the successful war against the Persians should be appropriated to that use. It was then ordered that each seaman should receive daily three oboli (2½d.); a foot soldier, four oboli (3¼d.); and a horseman, a drachm (5d.). Among the Romans, pay was the less necessary, because, in the early period of the republic, the possession of some property was indispensable to the privilege of serving in the army. In the equestrian order, those who were knights by birth were accounted sufficiently affluent to serve at their own expence: but to those who were promoted to that rank in consequence of gallant exploits, a horse, a gold ring, a shield, and a pike, were presented at the public charge. The long duration of the siege of Veii first led to the establishment of regular pay, about 340 years after the building of the city. Taxes were imposed to supply a fund for the payment of two oboli daily to the foot soldier, and a drachm to the horseman. — It must appear remarkable to a modern reader that a centurion's pay was only double that of a private. When Cæsar sought to gain the disposal of the army, and was possessed of money by the conquest of Gaul, he doubled the rate of pay; Augustus raised it still higher; and Domitian followed his example, by carrying the pay of a private to ten-pence a day.

Though M. AUDOUIN had promised to be brief on all military points previously to the use of gunpowder, the majority of his

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strength, and a display of insulated exertion. Cyrus is said to have improved the military weapons, as well as to have been the first to form soldiers into compact bodies, and to make them advance in concert at the voice of their leader. The use of cavalry and of chariots received, it is probable, considerable improvement under his direction: but when we reflect on the backward state of society in the age of Cyrus, and the doubtful authority on which his improvements are transmitted to us, we may fairly conclude that his military system was very imperfect, and greatly inferior to that of the Greeks; among whom it appears that youths were first regularly trained to warlike exercises. The order of battle is so seldom described by Greek historians, that we have no little difficulty in arriving at a knowlege of their arrangements; but they may be said in general to have been simple, consisting of the application of a few plain ideas, such as stationing the cavalry on the wings, the heavy-armed infantry in a phalanx, and the light troops under shelter of the phalanx. The hilly surface of Greece presenting many positions in which cavalry could not act, the proportion of the latter in point of numbers was generally small; for even in the army which followed Alexander to the conquest of the East, only a seventh part (5000) were horsemen. The most singular circumstance in M. AUDOUIN's account of Grecian tactics is his silence regarding the talents of Epaminondas. He pays a compliment in general terms to the virtue and ability of that commander, but appears scarcely aware of the surprizing effects which he succeeded in producing by the application of intense thought to the movement of military bodies. We meet with no acknowlegement that he was the first who enabled his troops to vanquish superior numbers by dint of skilful disposition; and that the rules put in practice by him may be said to constitute the elements of that system of attacking by columns, which revolutionary France adopted with such fatal energy against her German antagonists.

The Roman history appears to have engaged a larger share of M. AUDOUIN's attention, and the merits of the various characters who are conspicuous in it seem much more familiar to him. Of the wonderful talents of Cæsar, whether in movements, in sieges, or in the day of battle, he frequently speaks in terms of just admiration; and with regard to Hannibal, he very properly fixes on his campaigns with Fabius as affording a finer exemplification of military skill than his most splendid victories. Never, he says, was any war more replete with useful lessons, and never was any described by a more careful narrator, for Polybius had visited in person the scenes of Hannibal's exploits. The long and successful resistance, opposed by Sertorius to the Roman power, affords a memorable proof of what may be accomplished by activity and local knowlege. It may be said of him as of Cæsar, that his marches, his encampments, his battles, his attacks by surprize, all denoted a continued and vigilant attention to the nature of the country in which he fought. — It was a fixed rule with the Romans to entrench themselves wherever they encamped. After having pitched on a spot of ground which, in addition to other advantages, possessed the command of water, the soldiers employed themselves in digging the intrenchments. A part of their officers meanwhile made an allotment of the interior space, so as to give to each body of two thousand an extent of a thousand feet in length by one hundred in breadth, which left a surface of five square feet to each soldier and his baggage. Thirty horse were allowed one hundred square feet.—The Grecian camps were round, the Roman were square; in both, patroles of infantry did duty within the camp, while the outposts were intrusted to cavalry. The summer-camps of the Romans, *castra æstiva*, were slight: but their winter camps, *castra hiberna*, were commodious, and thoroughly fortified.

The other topics in antient history which attract the observation of M. AUDOUIN are the origin of signals, (p. 175.) the use of warlike music, (p. 112.) the nature of the *balista* or projectile machines, (p. 178.), and finally, (p. 210.) the connection between hostile proceedings and the functions of diplomacy. On to infer that all which antiquity possessed that was grand and illustrious, is to be found in the blood, the manners, and the institutions of the French. In vain shall we look for it elsewhere; for of all the nations who co-operated in the overthrow of the Roman power, the French alone have remained a people.'

Notwithstanding these marvellous qualities in his countrymen, the author finds it necessary to acknowlege that they, like their neighbours, made no remarkable improvement in the art of war during the long period of eight centuries. He accounts for this, very properly, not by deficiency of ardour in the people, but by a total want of system on the part of the government. Kings in those days were little more than Generals *ad interim*; their only source of income was their demesnes; their only ministers were those of their household; taxes and standing armies were unknown. In the obscurity of these illiterate ages, it is scarcely possible to trace the origin of military ranks; and it is almost a vain effort to search for any thing like method or arrangement in the appointment of armies before the fifteenth century. They were levied in consequence of a *ban*, or general proclamation; each baron led forth his vassals; and the inhabitants of the districts through which they passed were obliged to supply them with provisions. If the danger became imminent, the *ban* or proclamation was repeated under the title of *arrière-ban*, and all persons able to bear arms were then obliged to march. Forty days were for a long period the allotted time of service; until, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, Philip the Fair enacted an extension of the period, and began to set an example of regular pay to his troops. The independent spirit of the northern tribes long resisted the imposition of taxes; and for many ages the dues collected were merely local, consisting of tolls on bridges, harbours, or public fairs. Even when arising from a different source, and when appropriated to national purposes, the assessments still retained for ages a character of locality, each district or province performing for itself the task of collection. Of the slow increase of the royal revenue, we may have some idea on being informed that the income of Philip Augustus, who was so conspicuous among the sovereigns in the thirteenth century, was below 5000l. sterling a-year, equivalent perhaps to 100,000l. in the present day. The amount continued nearly the same for a century, till Philip the Fair found means, by a remarkable combination of artifice and vigour, to make his subjects submit to more taxes in a single reign than his predecessors had been able to impose in the course of ages. The task was difficult and dangerous: but Philip had the art, as soon as he had overcome the first obstacles, to make all parts of the complicated machine of government subservient to his views; employing his revenue to increase his troops, and his troops to increase his revenue. Among his successors, we meet with little display of talent till the reign of Charles V., the pupil of adversity, and the restorer to France of the provinces which had been conquered in an age of calamity by our Edward III. Charles was remarkable, in an æra of royal combatants, for not attempting to be the leader of his armies, and for confining himself to the task of equipping and provisioning them; a service in which he was eminently skilful.

The use of gunpowder made its way very slowly in an age that was adverse to innovation, and wedded to antient habits. The cross-bow-men, in particular, long adhered to their favourite weapon, which seemed to them to possess all the advantage of fire-arms. It consisted of a bow of steel, crossed by a stick of wood, with a cord and trigger; and the distance to which it threw arrows, and even darts, was very considerable. In addition to these offensive arms, the bowmen used a pike or halbert for close action; and it was not till a comparatively late period, posterior even to the adoption of the bayonet, that the disuse of the pike became general. Till the close of the 16th century, most of the nations of Europe continued to employ their old weapons; a practice in which the very imperfect construction of fire-arms tended to confirm them. Musquets were not in these days of such a shape as to be carried with ease in the hand; they looked like cannons in miniature; they needed, before firing, to be carefully fixed in a particular position; and previously to the use of flints, the soldiers were under the necessity of carrying lighted matches. However, when a decided preference was at last given to fire-arms, the effects of the change were such as to revolutionize the whole system of attack and defence. The lofty walls of stone in fortified towns were succeeded by mounds of earth, the circuit of which was extended, and the outworks multiplied to retard the approach and fatigue the patience of the assailant. During the prevalence of the feudal system, the poverty of the governments and the consequent shortness of campaigns had prevented the military service from becoming a profession. Fortification was little understood, the warlike machines of the antients were forgotten, and the contest was generally brought to issue by a battle in a plain:—but, when a standing army was constituted, and pay was regularly afforded, war became an employment for life, like any other; and the various subdivisions of miners, engineers, and artillery-men, were established. The ease with which the antient castles of the barons, and the fortifications of the towns, were now reduced by the artillery of the kings, was a principal cause of the decline of the aristocracy, and of the increasing ascendancy of the executive power. Another remarkable effect of the use of gunpowder was the restoration of infantry to that superiority over cavalry which it possessed among the antients. The constant attention and quickness which are requisite in handling fire-arms made them much more effectual in the hands of a disengaged foot-soldier, than in those of a horse-man. It is said that one cause of the victory of Cressy was the use of artillery by the English, while there was none on the part of the French; a want for which M. AUDOUIN is very loth to censure his countrymen. He has even the ingenuity to turn it into an encomium. 'They,' he says,' like true descendants of the intrepid Franks, disdained that aid which protects alike the coward and the brave.' Again, when speaking (Vol. ii. p. 122.) of his countrymen of the present day, he observes with equal complacency; 'When troops come to the bayonet, skill, courage, and strength are the qualities which decide the victory; this mode of fighting is on shore what boarding is at sea. It is the only kind of combat that is worthy of Frenchmen.'—We sincerely hope that they will adopt it!

The 16th century was remarkable for two considerable alterations in the military system of France; the payment of a bounty to recruits, and the commencement of a national militia. Three or four livres became the ordinary enlistment-money, and Swisserland and Germany continued to be the countries from which a large proportion of the troops in the pay of France were raised. They were kept up, however, only in time of war; at a peace, a general disbanding took place, with the exception of the royal guard, and a few garrisons. The commencement, or rather the approach to a commencement, of the militia-system in the 16th century proceeded from a sense of the delay attendant on the old mode of levying troops by *ban* and *arrière-ban*. To collect, unite, and exercise an undisciplined population caused a serious loss of time at the moment when time was most precious, Francis I. was accordingly induced to issue, in 1533, an edict to the following effect; "*Il sera fait chacun an, montre, ban et arrière-ban, et chacun sera tenû d'y comparoir en personne, en l'état qu'il est obligé.*" A subsequent order extended the period of service from forty days to three months; and the joint effect of these regulations was to render the popular levies, if not operative in themselves, (which such masses can hardly ever become,) more productive at least in the supply of recruits to the regular army. It was about this time, too, that the French government, apprized by experience of the ignorance and fraud of contractors, took more directly under its own management the supply of provisions for the troops. Together with this is to be recorded the establishment of a waggon-train, which, after the introduction of artillery, became an indispensable appendage to an army. All these improvements, however, were little better than mere experiments, till the days of *Sully*; who, by a rare union of knowlege and integrity, was destined to accomplish that which his predecessors had only begun.

Among the other beneficent institutions of Henry IV., is to be numbered the establishment of military hospitals. The experience of the sovereign and of his minister enabled them to place these at once on the plan of stationary and of moving hospitals, (*ambulances*,) an arrangement which has since, with little variations, been retained. M. Audouin finds in the constitution of these establishments, and in the eminence of the French surgeons, (Vol. ii. p. 67.) a just subject of exultation; though he cannot enjoy his triumph without wandering into a digression, to shew that the antient practitioners of medicine were strangers to any distinction between the functions of a surgeon and those of a physician. Not contented with this, he unluckily adds another digression (p. 66.) on the public hospitals of England, which are by no means on the footing that he desires; that of Greemuach (Greenwich) being, as far as he knows, (he forgets Chelsea,) the only one that is indebted to the national munificence for support.—Returning to a subject chronological arrangement: still he will find less cause to mark subsequent epochs by improvements in the art of war, than by the name of the reigning sovereign.

Soon after the assassination of Henry, *Sully* retired from his official labours. During the long administrations of *Richelieu* and *Mazarin*, the military establishment of France seemed to make no farther progress, but merely to follow the impulse which it had received from more vigorous hands. Holland, governed by Prince Maurice, was the school for war during the former part of this period: but few of that able General's improvements found their way to France. A Dutch engineer, however, taught the French the method of throwing bombs; and the Spanish war, subsequently carried on under the auspices of the Prince of *Condé*, was instrumental in forming both soldiers and officers. The opposite part taken by *Turenne* and by *Condé*, in the civil war which ensued, affords M. Audouin an opportunity of drawing a parallel between these distinguished characters. The observer of their exploits could not fail, he says, to adopt the opinion of *Bossuet* that "the one appeared to act by profound reflection, the other by sudden impulse." 'I lay stress,' says M. Audouin, 'on this expression, because it is not only a correct comment on the general tactics of these commanders, but an explanation of the unexpected issue of the civil war. *Condé*, at the head of superior numbers, is vanquished because he gives way to sudden thoughts, and exercises little foresight; while *Turenne*, guided by mature reflection, calculates every movement, and leaves nothing to chance. *Condé* and his officers shew themselves to be unacquainted with the means of provisioning an army; while *Turenne*, as attentive to military economy as to tactics, undertakes no movement in opposition to the commissariat.' In other respects, the zeal and ability of both were productive of great instruction to the officers around them, and counteracted the unfavourable impressions created by the administration of the Cardinals; who, strangers to the nicety of military honour, had introduced into the camps a disgusting system of *espionnage*.

We come now to the military administration of Louis XIV., an æra as dear to the vanity of Frenchmen as the reign of Elizabeth or the victories of Marlborough to our own. M. Audouin is strongly impressed with the magnitude of Louis's armies, and with the vigour of the heads which directed them: but he deems it incumbent on him to qualify the praise bestowed on them by *Voltaire* and others, and to shew how greatly the ostentation of the court interfered with the order and economy which are indispensable to an army. Louis had no idea of privations; and the moment he appeared in the camp, it seemed as if all habits of moderation were at an end. The consumption of stores increased, and the purchase and conveyance of provisions became more difficult. The officers of the staff, promoted through favour, and accustomed to the luxury of a court, set an example of dangerous extravagance, and formed a remarkable contrast to the temperance and orderly habits of the soldier. Rigorous as the penal code had become, it was in many respects a dead letter with regard to officers of rank; to whom the General scarcely ventured to do more than administer a caution. The period of honour and success in the long reign of Louis XIV. is limited by M. Audouin to twenty-four years; namely, the time that elapsed from 1661, when Louis became the actual ruler of France, to 1684, when he lost *Colbert*, and fell under the influence of Madame *Maintenon*. *Le Tellier*, the minister at war, and his son *Louvois*, who succeeded to his father's station by one of the reversionary grants which were extremely common in that age, were, together with *Colbert*, the main agents in the erection and guidance of that fabric which threatened to overthrow the independence of Europe. *Louvois*, early accustomed to habits of business, became the parent of regularity in the war-department, and silently introduced his own plans; while to Louis he appeared only to copy the ideas of his sovereign. Unfortunately, like his royal master, he was unable to guard himself from vindictive impulses; and, while his manners towards his countrymen were forbidding, his vis-were the first to set the example, as they had been in the introduction of regular pay; or, in short, says their partial countrymen, 'in the improvement of every branch of military administration.'!

[*To be continued.*]

Art. IX. *Les Tombeaux du 18me Siècle; i. e.* The Tombs of the eighteenth Century. By A. Miéville. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 867. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s.

A former work by M. Miéville having fallen under our cognizance in Vol. lxiii. page 483, our readers are in some measure acquainted with the peculiarities of his style and manner. He is ambitious of discussing historical subjects, but doubtful of engaging the attention of his unsteady countrymen if he adheres to the beaten track of chronological narrative. Instead, therefore, of relating events in the order of their succession, his plan is to make choice, as a main object, of some conspicuous character or remarkable exploit, and to introduce minor subjects in the train of this powerful attractor. In his former work, "Travels into France in the Gothic Ages," his object was to convey an account of the national manners by a delineation of active scenes, and by the supposed report of actual spectators. In the book before us, the biographical sketches of eminent characters, while they chiefly consist of effusions on grand events, afford him likewise an opportunity of introducing in detail a variety of historic anecdotes and explanatory circumstances. When we took leave of the former production, we expressed a wish that M. Miéville would look out for other travelling companions than the Goths; and we are glad to find that, on the present occasion, he has changed greatly for the better. No care of execution nor any power of fancy could give interest to an historical essay on so barren and uninviting a period as the fifth century: but the case is very different when he comes to describe the character of men, who united to martial spirit the knowlege and accomplishments of civilized life. It seems, therefore, very probable that the work under review may obtain a considerable share of favour with the French public; though, in this country, where it has not yet become fashionable to write history in measured prose, we can scarcely augur so favourable a reception for it.

M. Miéville seems to have a strong predilection for tomb-scenes, and to imagine himself possessed of the power of 'darkening the awful and aggravating the gloomy.' In his preceding publication, he introduced a traveller "surrounded by mournful silence, while nature in decrepitude seemed expiring around him." The beginning of the present is not quite so doleful, but is still abundantly serious :

‘ I had fallen asleep, and a delightful dream filled my imagination with the most pleasant visions : but all at once the sun was obscured, the earth shook, and a hundred clouds appeared, the harbingers of lightning and death. I thought that I heard the gates of a sepulchre open ; a feeble light guided my trembling steps ; I descended, and, in the midst of ruins, beheld a long range of tombs. A venerable old man came to place himself at my side. " You tremble," said he, " and are unable to sustain the dismal sight of death. Have you thus forgotten that every thing in nature is destined to die ? It is on this spot that time has heaped together the ruins of the last century. On that side, Flattery has erected the superb bronze ; on this, Friendship has inscribed an affecting memorial. But these are the works of man ; behold the work of death !" At these words he stretched out his hand, a peal of thunder was heard, the marble gave way, the stones were loosened, and the tombs opened before my eyes, presenting the sight of a hundred bodies extended on the ground. " Approach," said the old man. " Their features are again fresh, and time has this day repaired his ravages for your sake. Follow me, let us seek instruction amid these monuments of the instability of life."

After this solemn preamble, the guide, who bears the classic name of *Athenais*, enters on the discharge of his functions, and passes in review the various occupants of the sepulchral mansion. We shall begin our samples with the men of letters.

‘ *Bossuet*. Let us stop, said my conductor, beside one of the finest characters which France ever produced. This old man is the Bishop of Meaux, the unshaken defender of the faith, the friend of the poor, the oracle of the church, the vigorous and sublime historian, the pathetic and ardent orator. Every period of his life was remarkable ; even in youth he shewed a mind impatient to soar. In the pulpit, he discovered an ardent elocution ; at court, he drew tears from his royal hearers ; while in the country he was the comforter of his flock. His genius embraced every thing ; doctrine, morals, controversy, sentiment, oratory, history ; and it might be said that he came among men to exhibit a proof of the extent to which virtue and exertion could be carried. With what a masterly hand does he delineate, in his Universal History, the rise and fall of thrones, and the overthrow of empires by the hand of God, or by the consuming power of time. What sublime pictures are his orations ; what majesty of style, what animation of description ! Above all, what an affecting farewell does he bid the court, when, on terminating his career as a speaker, he exclaims, " Happy shall I be if, warned by these grey locks of the account which I shall have to render, I reserve for my flock the remnant of a voice which decays, and of an ardour which borders on extinction." It was in the midst of simplicity and humility that this venerable prelate terminated his career, at the age of seventy-seven.’

'*Bayle.* I was next shewn by my guide a man of the age of sixty. The marks of a long illness were engraven on his features, and it was easy to perceive that his life had been embittered by chagrin and persecution. In France his native country, in Swisserland where he passed his youth, in Holland whither he fled for protection, *Bayle* was always seen struggling with a gloomy destiny. Alternately persecuted and applauded, a martyr of superstition and of policy, he was at one time a sufferer by the indiscriminate suspicions of the English ministry towards the partizans of France; and at another time the victim of that philosophic boldness which pervades his writings. Of his different works, his Philosophical Commentaries, his Journal, his Miscellanies, all discover genius: but it was his Dictionary that exhibited him in the light of an able casuist and profound scholar. Religion saw in him one of her most dreaded adversaries; and his errors were the more dangerous because his style was temperate, and even bore the appearance of candour and sincerity. Had he been the enthusiast of a sect, he would have had a claim on our pity, but his scepticism led him to condemn all denominations; and he was intitled to the name of Protestant only because he protested against all established opinions. This melancholy perversion of genius is the more to be regretted because his manners were mild, his heart was excellent, his disinterestedness was undoubted, and his mode of life was frugal and laborious. Till the age of forty, he made it a rule to study fourteen hours in a-day; and in the latter years of life he was unable to recollect that he had passed an hour in idleness. The strange inconsistencies of his character increase the difficulty of forming a conclusive opinion in regard to him. At one time we see him a profound philosopher; at another an incessant sophist; full of information, yet dwelling on puerile questions; attacking the most eminent men, and condescending to derive assistance from little minds; exemplary in his personal conduct, yet employing all the faculties of his mind to combat the virtues of Christianity.'

'*Boileau.* Observe this old man, and let us, as we pass, strew flowers on his tomb. No poet ever understood better the harmony of numbers, or was more successful in displaying the charms of an easy and elegant muse. Fostered in the lap of the antients, he possessed their grand expressions, their bold images, their lively and easy points. His "Satires" are not all of equal merit: but his "Epistles," in which praise is so skilfully mingled with admonition; his "Lutrin," in which a forbidding subject received at his hands pathos and grandeur; and above all, his "Art of Poetry," in which he developes, in the most fluent verse, such rich images, such pure and sound conceptions, the treasures of the poetical code, — all these are lasting titles to immortality. Religion had no cause to regret his celebrity; for never did his pen offend her. His morals were simple and austere; his character was blunt, but frank and candid; his conversation was not animated indeed, but always instructive. His works would no doubt have been better, had they contained fewer of those harsh strokes which wound without correcting: but, if he sometimes wrote in anger, his principles of action were always beneficent. At the age of seventy-five, he felt his end gradually approaching: he met death with philosophic calmness, and bequeathed the chief part of his fortune to the poor.'—

'*Leibnitz*. Approach this tomb, and behold the man whom it contains. Observe the works deposited with him; his writings on theology and metaphysics; his letters on toleration; his profound researches on international law; the mass of his physical and mathematical solutions; and a variety of other intricate disquisitions which combined to give him the character of the most general scholar of his age. He was so fortunate as to receive the most flattering distinctions, the most magnificent recompences, and the esteem of almost every sovereign in Europe. The princes of the House of Brunswick employed him to write the history of their family; the Elector of Mentz admitted him into the list of his counsellors; the Elector of Brandenburgh placed him at the head of his academy; the Emperor of Germany granted him a pension and a title; and he had the honour of sharing the invention of the differential calculus with the immortal Newton. An historian, a civilian, a metaphysician, a mathematician, and a poet, *Leibnitz* may be said to have embraced every thing. The treasures of antient learning were his, and he had the ambition to attempt a knowlege of the most abstruse subjects. He was thus led into bold speculations, from the pursuit of which he was sometimes recalled by the admonitory lessons of history; while at other times he ventured beyond his powers, and allowed the guiding thread to escape from his hold, but proceeded unconscious of his loss, and bewildered himself in the illusions of system. He then no longer argued; an ardent imagination created for him an assemblage of fantastic beings; dazzling hypotheses deceived his reason; and when he hoped to have succeeded in laying open one labyrinth, he little perceived that he was entangled in another.

'*Leibnitz* was unmarried, and possessed a considerable income: but he impaired his circumstances by inattention, and by a contempt for all that was unconnected with his meditations. He trusted his house to faithless domestics, and forgot all temporal concerns amid the contemplation of centrifugal force and angles of refraction. Repeated attacks of gout had shaken his constitution, and he thought too lightly of his complaint. It mounted at last from the foot to the stomach, and suddenly cut short his life while reclining on his bed, with a copy of Barclay's *Argenis* at his side.'—

'*Vauvenargues*.[*] He is no more; his career has been splendid and rapid as a thunderbolt. Death respected neither his youth, nor his virtue, nor his tender heart, nor the prayers of his friends. Educated in a regiment of which the combats may be called so many victories, how often did he succeed in acquiring distinction! How often was the field of battle a field of honour to him! In the midst even of dissipation, he was seen to cultivate philosophy, literature, and the arts. His "Introduction to the knowlege of the Human Mind," as well as his "Moral Maxims," was produced amid the tumult of arms. Modest, candid, and even simple, his sword alone was formidable. His mind had the depth of the antients; and his character bore marks of their strength and their independence. Born in Provence, he appeared to derive from the warmth of its climate a purity of taste, a charm of diction, and an elevation of thought. His eloquence was full of figures, and his heart supplied them in abundance; for youthful innocence had not in him been shaken by the tumult of passion. He seemed to experience passion only when it led to what was great, just, and useful.—His body, though somewhat bowed down by fatigue, was well shaped, and his looks were animated by the fire of virtue. His features wore a melancholy but beneficent cast, and the smile of sensibility seemed to rest on his lips. Unfortunate man! at the age of thirty-five his career was cut short by death;—not on the field of battle but by a lingering decay, the consequence of the inexpressible fatigues sustained by the French army in their retreat from Prague in the winter of 1741. Every day he appeared to lose a part of himself; his limbs became paralyzed; his eyes contracted dimness; and a period of life, which is gladdened in most men by youthful illusions, soon bore in his case the marks of old age.—His last effusions were in praise of his God; the world shrunk from his view; he ceased to hear the voice of his fellow-men; and his soul, still ardent, sprang into the bosom of eternity.'

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[*] See an account of this author's works, M. Rev. Vol. li. N. S. p. 502.

Together with the *literati* of the century, M. MIÉVILLE describes a number of political characters; namely the principal sovereigns, generals, ministers, and female favourites of the time. The admirers of Prince *Eugene* will find his eminent actions related here with animation and effect; and the exploits of Marlborough have seldom received greater justice at the hands of a foreigner: though, with the customary inaccuracy of a Frenchman, the author perpetually calls him *Curchill,* and persists in writing 'Vinsor, Vinsor Lodg,' and the 'Wighs.' We have seldom seen a more lively contrast than he exhibits in the delineations of the characters of the Duchess *de la Vallière* and the Marchioness *de Montespan,* the successive favourites of the *Grand Monarque.* Those who know the meekness and the misfortunes of the former, from the affecting pen of Madame *Genlis,* will read with interest the brief sketch in M. MIÉVILLE's work, and will rejoice to find this additional testimony to her superiority over her vain and domineering rival. As to our English literati, we find notices of Savage, Pope, Locke, and Sir Isaac Newton. The last three, though not ill executed, appear too short for characters of such eminence; and in regard to the first, it may be said that whoever ventures to follow Johnson, in an exposition of the virtues and frailties of his unhappy friend, will discover that he has undertaken a hopeless task. M. MIÉVILLE is more fortunate in pourtraying the indefatigable spirit with which the Princess *Orsini* actuated the counsels of Spain, and in exhibiting a mixed picture of disinterestedness and inconsistency in Christina of Sweden.—We shall now extract a specimen of his manner in regard to military men and politicians.

‘ *Marshal Saxe.* Come and behold this warrior, his dark eyebrows, his swarthy complexion, and his stately shape. Read on this column the illustrious names of Fontenoy, Raucoux, and Lawfeldt, and regret that Germany should have given birth to the avenger of France. It was from *Eugene* and Marlborough that he received his earliest lessons; at the age of twelve (1708) he served at the siege of Lisle; and afterward, when the operations in Flanders became less active, he flew to the siege of Riga, asked leave to serve under the Czar Peter, and acquired distinction at the walls of Stralsund, where his father (Augustus, King of Poland) was besieging Charles XII. When peace was re-established throughout Europe, he was called from a state of inactivity by the inhabitants of the Duchy of Courland, who sought in him a protector against the usurpation of Russia. His means proving inadequate, he returned, after a signal display of bravery, into France; where he gave his time, during the pacific ministry of Cardinal *Fleury*, to the study of his profession, and published his “ Reveries,” a work replete with bold and profound conceptions. These he had soon an opportunity of exemplifying under the command of the Duke of Berwick, in the short war of 1733: but it was in the war of 1740 that he became conspicuous. He advanced into the Austrian states with the rapidity of a *Condé*; and when retreat became necessary, he displayed the circumspection of a *Turenne*. At Fontenoy, (1745) he snatched the victory from the proudest of the enemies of France; at Raucoux, (1746) he overthrew the allies, though reinforced by powerful succours under Prince Charles of Lorraine; and, finally, at Lawfeldt, (1747) he triumphed in a sanguinary struggle, and availed himself of the scene of carnage to dispose the mind of his sovereign to peace.

‘ After the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, Marshal *Saxe* retired to his mansion at Chambord. This residence presented all that taste, luxury, and pleasure can find means to supply. It was at once a military depôt and a splendid court. His cavalry-regiment was exercised daily as if in the field; and the reviews of the morning were succeeded by the chace, by sumptuous entertainments, and by dances:—but his enjoyments were destined to be of short duration. He was attacked in the year 1750, at the age of fifty-four, with a putrid fever; when the King sent to him his first physician, Mons. *Senac*. “ My friend,” said the Marshal, sensible of the fatal nature of his disease, “ life is but a dream; mine has been splendid, but it has not been long.” He saw the approach of death with composure; the church of Chambord was crowded with a multitude in tears; the firing of cannon announced to those at a distance that he was still living; it ceased, and it then became known that the Marshal had expired. It had been his wish that all funeral pomp should be avoided, but the court decreed otherwise, and he was buried with kingly magnificence.—’

‘ *Duguay Trouin.* France recalls with enthusiasm all that this naval warrior performed for her, and cites with pride the various actions in which he made her flag triumph. Born, like *Jean Bart*, in a station of mediocrity, he was himself the author of his reputation.

His habits were originally formed in the merchant-service, which he quitted to defend his country in the navy. It was in the war of the succession (1702) that he chiefly became distinguished. When all Europe seemed combined against France, and when the arms of Louis XIV. experienced a succession of reverses, *Duguay Trouin* succeeded in raising the trophy of victory on the coasts of the new world. His exploits at Rio Janeiro (in 1711) afford an ample theme of exultation for Frenchmen. Difficulties seemed only to exalt his courage and his resources; he braved a fleet, an army, and a fortress; he stripped Brazil of her treasures, and returned in triumph to the ports of France. Valour alone could not have accomplished so much; he had long studied the principles of naval tactics, and knew how to render the winds and waves instrumental in his operations; his observation had become remarkably quick and accurate; he might be said to plan with so much care as to leave nothing to valour, and to execute with so much courage as to need no aid from arrangement. Though loaded with his sovereign's favours, he continued plain and modest; he spoke as if he had performed nothing, and derived his chief satisfaction from the humanity which he had shewn to his enemies in the hour of their defeat.

'During the regency of the Duke of Orleans, he made use of peace to heal the wounds of war and to renovate the marine of France. Placed at the head of the Council of the Indies, he communicated the ardour of his mind to every branch of the naval service. His tall stature and manly features announced a hero. He spoke little; his look seemed melancholy; and the habit of meditating on scenes of warlike exertion made him comparatively indifferent to all that failed to excite ardent emotions.'—

'*Cardinal Alberoni**. Born at Placentia, *Alberoni* was the son of a labourer, and was brought up to the church. He held the place of almoner in the family of Count *Roucovieri*, at the time (1704) when that nobleman acted for the Duke of Parma in various negotiations with the Duke *de Vendôme*. *Alberoni* accompanied his master; and having succeeded in exciting attention, he became Secretary to the Duke, and followed him in all his campaigns. When the unfavourable state of affairs in Spain called for the presence of the Duke, *Alberoni* went with him, and found means to insinuate himself at the Spanish court, particularly with the Princess Orsini, the Queen's favourite. After the death of the Queen, he persuaded the Princess to recommend Elizabeth Farnese to the throne of Spain, and to appoint him the agent for the conclusion of this alliance: but no sooner was the marriage effected, than he stimulated the new Queen to banish the Princess, and managed to render himself the prime mover of the Spanish counsels. In this situation, he displayed abilities which rank him with the most eminent statesmen. He exerted himself to repair to Spain the evils of a ruinous war, to re-establish her marine, and to renovate her commerce. Happy, had he stopped here, and not permitted the success of his first efforts to excite him to romantic undertakings.

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* See also M. Rev. Vol. lvii. N.S. p. 288.

'The projects formed by *Alberoni* implied an extraordinary share of boldness. He aimed at rendering Spain the leading power in Europe, at acquiring the sovereignty of the ocean, and at obtaining the restitution of Italy from the House of Austria. Three great powers stood in the way of his ambition, Austria, England, and France. Austria he proposed to occupy by exciting the Turks to war; England, by favouring an invasion in behalf of the Stuarts; and France, by intestine commotions. Full of these magnificent schemes, *Alberoni* adopted every secret method to promote them, and became the main-spring of the most complicated movements; but, at the moment when all appeared to be ripe for execution, the pillars of his edifice gave way; the Turks, exhausted, refused to renew the war; Charles XII., the intended champion of the Stuarts, was killed; and the Parisian conspiracy was discovered. Things now underwent a total change. The cabinets of Vienna, Paris, and London, subscribed a triple alliance, and directed their conjunct forces against a court which had ventured to have recourse to plots and conspiracies. The brilliant hopes of Spain were now exchanged for dreadful reverses. The English destroyed her shipping; the French seized St. Sebastian and Fontarabia; the Austrians poured 50,000 men into Italy; and the ill-starred *Alberoni* was termed a conspirator, and obliged to withdraw from the Spanish dominions. His only place of refuge was Genoa; he set out for it, but in his journey over the Pyrenees his servants were robbed and murdered; and the man who had hoped to govern Europe was obliged to travel a dreary length of way on foot and in disguise. Arrived at Genoa, he passed several years in distress from the threats of his enemies and the chagrin of personal disappointment; and it was not until the death of the reigning Pope that he durst venture to remove to Rome, and spend his old age among the friends of his youth. In this tranquil retreat, he attained the age of eighty-seven, and died in 1752. After time had soothed his political vexations, his vivacity returned, and he formed the charm of every circle that he frequented. His recollections were keen, his memory was strong, and impressions of his political career were indelibly engraven on his mind. He had seen Louis XIV. in his advanced years, the Duke of Orleans in his splendour, *Vendôme* in the midst of battles, and the Princess Orsini at the height of favour. He spoke of these persons and of many others with inconceivable vivacity, and made his hearers believe themselves present at scenes that were long past. His voice, his eye, his gestures, were all in unison with his language; and however long he might continue to speak, his friends listened with avidity, and were eager to return to such attractive conversations.'—

'*Marshall Villars.* When *Villars* reached the age of eighty, (in 1732) he was almost the only survivor of the warriors of Friedlingen and Blenheim. Their exploits were recorded by monumental stone, but the living witnesses were departed, and the age of Louis XIV., with its triumphs and its sorrows, had passed away. *Villars* had been present at battles fought fifty years before he distinguished himself at Senef, and had personally conversed with *Turenne*, *Condé*, and *Luxemburg*. He commenced the war of the Succession with eminent

nent advantage, but he was removed by court-intrigue from the Danube to the Cevennes. The arms of the allies had nearly overthrown the power of France, when, towards the close of the war, *Villars* revived the spirit of his countrymen by the victory of Denain. Though the Austrians were strongly intrenched, and elated with former victories, the French attacked with the bayonet and drove them from their strong holds: but they were repulsed in turn. This alternation of success was three times repeated; till at last the skill of *Villars* was triumphant, and made his countrymen forget ten years of misfortune. Peace being re-established, the lapse of time gradually healed the wounds of France, and *Villars* was passing a happy old age in retirement, when he was roused, in his eighty-first year, by the alarm of war. Italy was the scene of contest between France and Austria, and thither he proceeded. He made a rapid conquest of the Milanese, and saved the King of Sardinia from capture by heading a charge of cavalry against a vast superiority of numbers. When congratulated on his vigour, he replied, " These are the last sparks of a decaying flame; let me seek death in that manner which every commander should desire." His wish, however, was not attained; and when, confined by his last illness at Turin, he was told that the Duke of Berwick had ended his career in the field of battle, " Ah," said he, " I always deemed him more fortunate than I was." '

The arrangement of these biographical notices is regulated not by the profession of the individuals, nor by their relative consequence in the eye of the historian, but by the unenviable distinction of priority of decease. Three of the characters, *Condé*, *Sobieski*, and Queen *Christina*, should belong, by this rule, to the preceding century; though the time of their death approached so nearly to the succeeding æra, that the irregularity scarcely deserves animadversion. Exclusive of these three, the number of personages described amounts to not fewer than seventy; and the selection must be pronounced to be judicious, with the exception of a few: such as Admiral Byng, who is introduced merely for the sake of *pathos*; and a very different character, *Ankerstrom*, the assassin of Gustavus, whose name forms a most unsuitable termination to a list of worthies. With regard to style, M. MIÉVILLE's chief trespass consists in diffuse amplification; accompanied at times by an example of that unfortunate antithesis which we noticed in his *Travels*. What, for instance, can be more at variance with good taste than to say of Sir Isaac Newton, ' He who breathed fire (*enflammoit*) into his age is now frozen by the cold hand of death?' — One of the chief circumstances in the author's descriptive pictures is the manner in which the various individuals behaved on their death-beds; and it is remarkable that several, such as Madame *de Pompadour*, acted with more constancy and resignation than their former habits gave reason to expect. In these, as well as other passages, the writer is in general animated and impressive. The result

Art. X. *Melanges de Littérature, d'Histoire,* &c. &c. i. e. Miscellaneous Essays on Literature, History, Morals, and Philosophy. By Francis Louis Comte D'Escherny, formerly Chaimberlain to the King of Wirtemberg. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boſſe. Price 18s. sewed.

It must be admitted that the French greatly excel us in works of this description. However superficial in philosophical or literary speculations the majority of their writers may be, yet they contrive to mingle a large portion of instruction with the amusement which they never fail to afford; and they have a general liveliness of manner about them, which goes a great way towards recompensing the occasional deficiency of matter. The present writer, as a contemporary with the brilliant wits of the latter half of the last century in France, nay more, as the friend of some among them, and the acquaintance of all, demands a share of our attention. Indeed, if we may *perfectly* trust his own account, no person seems to have had a better opportunity than he enjoyed, of appreciating the different merits of the extraordinary characters who composed that constellation of genius. In order to introduce our readers at once to the most interesting part of the present miscellany,—namely, that which relates to the author and his literary circle,—we shall begin by some translations from a chapter in the third volume of the work, in which we are favoured with a sketch of Paris in the year 1762.

'I arrived at Paris,' says M. D'Escherny, 'in 1762, just as *Rousseau* was leaving it;—when, protected by the great, surrounded by glory, and possessing the favour of the people, he withdrew himself by flight from persecutions more apparent than real. All those who have excited so much attention in the present times* were then unborn, or in infancy; then were flourishing the great men who gave such *éclat* to the age of Louis the XVth., *Voltaire, Rousseau, Buffon, D'Alembert, Diderot, Helvetius, Thomas, Marmontel, Raynal, La Harpe,* and some others. What a city was Paris at this epoch, and during the twenty years which followed it! What a proud and imposing spectacle did it offer to the eye of the observer! Theatres, academies, learned men, and artists, attracted strangers to Paris; thither every nation flocked in crowds; there they sought for instruction, taste, pleasure, urbanity:—Paris was the resort of a large portion of the civilized globe:—it was even more. Within the bosom of an absolute monarchy, this city inclosed a republic by no means bounded to that circle, but one which extended over all Europe, as far as Europe thought and reflected; which dispersed an invisible power, namely, that of opinion; a power which at length compels every other to submit. The sittings of this power were more than a smart antithesis, the intent is mischievous: for of what avail is the authority (supposing authority to be of any avail) of the greatest men who have believed in Christianity, if they have not exerted their reason as the foundation of that belief, but, according to this author, 'have trusted in dogmas which are repugnant to every suggestion of reason?'— How did the Count venture to insert the name of Locke (to mention only one great man) in his list of Christians of the foregoing denomination, with Locke's chapter on the distinct provinces of Faith and Reason before his eyes; and in the very face of the well-known distinction in Locke's Essay between things contrary to reason, and things above it? Such careless assertions need only be stated to confute them. Still less is it necessary for us to enter into argument with this author, when he talks in the exploded strain of many antient and modern infidels, of Platonism as the source of Christianity. On that subject we have spoken fully on a former occasion; and we beg to refer our readers to that article *. Meanwhile, may we ask, *en passant*, what is meant by '*a philosophical religion which admits of mysteries*,' and of which the Count seems desperately enamoured, if indeed he be ever serious in his expressions on this subject? We are equally at a loss to divine the nature of that '*opposition* which the wisdom of *Bonaparte* has suffered to erect itself among the philosophers, for the purpose of watching over religion, and compelling it to do nothing but good to mankind.'— 'Valuable opposition!' continues the rhapsodist, '*holy* institution! of which we already feel the advantages, and which will extort from posterity fresh benedictions on the present reign!'—*Felix faustumque sit*: but as to what this '*opposition*' may be, in design, conduct, or effect, we are left in total darkness.

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* Many of these essays were written several years ago. *So far* the author has attended to the precepts of Horace.

Let us now proceed to give some general account of the contents of these volumes; and to specify such parts as appear to deserve that commendation which we have *in limine* bestowed on them, in common with the greater portion of similar productions in the French language. We shall also insert some less favourable remarks, as the several essays appear to require censure mingled with praise; or, occasionally, unmitigated censure.

The first dissertation (and dry and dull enough it is!) turns on '*Egotism*.' This is evidently a sore subject, and indeed difficult for a Frenchman to manage. The author is continually attacking the fault in question, yet continually apologizing for it.

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* See the review of *Combes-Dounous* on Platonism, Appendix to Vols. lxii. & lxiii. N.S.

We shall see very shortly the "*raison suffisante*" for this practice. The remarks on 'Egotism' are only *remarkable* for that stalest of all attempts, namely, the vain endeavour of adding novelty to an exhausted subject by distinctions without a difference.—The next article intitles itself '*Unpublished* Anecdotes of the Life of Peter the Great:' a misnomer, assuredly; for the greatest part of them we have read in English novels and anecdotes:—from Bruce (not the *Abyssinian Beef-eater*, of course) much is confessedly extracted; and when the selector quotes this last-mentioned authority as absolutely worthy of reliance, he certainly forgets some extraordinary stories recorded by him, which occur to us as we are writing. One, perhaps, is worth mentioning. Among many other equally extravagant stories, Bruce tells us of a whole division of a Russian army being stopped in their march to Derbent, by the *beauty* of a young *decapitated* Tartar!—*Crimine ab uno disce omnes.* Yet this selection from Bruce and other Russian journalists is very entertaining; and we recommend it to our *idle readers* as one of the best biographical sketches of the sort with which we are acquainted.

Essay III. is superscribed, 'The first quality is that of being fortunate.'—The fourth is 'On the proportion of Punishments and Crimes.'—The fifth, 'On Nobility.'—The sixth, 'On the political errors of *Jean Jaques Rousseau.*'—The seventh, 'On Russia.'—The eighth, 'On Sweden.'—The ninth, 'On certain opinions;' namely, on the frequency of uncultivated abilities; and on the effects of fortune in the distribution of worldly advantages.—The tenth, 'On Truth.'—The eleventh, 'On Happiness.'—The twelfth, 'On Poetry and Versification.'—The thirteenth, 'On *Dramatic* and Vocal Music.'—The fourteenth is an 'Eulogy on *J. J. Rousseau.*' From this essay we shall make some extracts, because it is evidently a laboured production, and on an attractive subject; and though the style of it, indeed, is faulty and inflated enough.—The fifteenth essay treats again of '*Rousseau*, and of the Philosophers of the 18th century.'—The sixteenth, 'On the Press, and on Books.'—The seventeeth, 'On the superiority of the Eighteenth century.'—The eighteenth essay is devoted to 'Criticism, and the periodical works;' and the whole concludes with a critique extracted from the "Journal of the Empire," by Professor *Leuliette*, on M. D'ESCHERNY's publication, intitled the "Correspondence of a Parisian with his Friends in Swisserland, England, &c." and on the sequel of that publication, "On Equality," &c. by the same author.

Of the above list, much the best executed articles are the biographical and historical. The metaphysics of this writer are absurdly speculative, and deficient in that single species of information which can render metaphysical discussions interesting, namely, in facts relative to the different powers of the mind. The political economy of M. D'Escherny seems founded on no acknowleged principles. He now praises the '*virtuous savage*' of *Rousseau*, and now justifies the worst duplicity of civilized manners.

The essay 'on Poetry and Versification' is evidently the composition of a man who has no relish for either: but its paradoxes are lively, and its very heresies are amusing. The remarks on '*Dramatic* and Vocal Music' contain some pleasing sketches of the several distinguished singers who have appeared on the French stage, for a succession of years; and we perfectly agree with the author in his high eulogium on the acting and singing of Signora *Grassini*. In the essay 'on the Philosophers of the 18th century,' the *reason* for the defence of Egotism, mentioned above, plainly appears. In his account of *Rousseau*, especially, this writer more than "pursues the triumph, and partakes the gale." He pleads guilty, indeed, to the charge, and adds to his previous apology the example of *several* celebrated French writers. Might not *several* have been changed to *all?* —Without pressing this point, we shall proceed to translate a curious passage from the essay in question. The author says that he '*was very modest once*, and fearful of that ridicule which *seemed* to him likely to attach to every writer who entertained the public with his private affairs:' but he was '*cured* of this diffidence by reading the Memoirs of Baron *Trenck*; the Memoirs of Literature by M. *Palissot*; the Works of *M de la Harpe*; the Memoirs of *Marmontel*; the Essay on the Life of Seneca, by *Diderot*; the Recollections of M. *Thiébault*; and, lastly, the Confessions of *J. J. Rousseau*.' We conceive, indeed, that the last dose, well digested, would be enough (if example *must* corrupt) to '*cure*' any author of the fear of egotism, should even the preceding course of medicine have failed. A tolerably fair (though rather unnecessary) account of these well-known productions is subjoined; and the remarks of the author on M. *Palissot* strike us as novel and ingenious. 'On the whole, (he says) these memoirs of literature appear to have been composed by M. *Palissot*, for the purpose of associating himself with the merit of the writers whom he celebrates, and of raising himself on the ruins of those whom he criticises; so that he endeavours to make both his panegyric and his satire reflect credit on his own character. These Memoirs, which, *nevertheless*, are the best of his works, *according to my taste*, form a sort of perspective, at the end of which we discover the bust of M. *Palissot*; and, which is more, both sides of the vista which leads to it are also lined with statues erected to M. *Palissot!* After this vivacious piece of *quizzing*, the Count D'ESCHERNY cannot, *in justice*, be very angry with the critic who ridicules this propensity to egotism in the said Count himself. We shall conclude our review of his 'Opinions' by observing that, in his parallel of Cyrus and *Bonaparte*, he has stepped out of his way to speak most improperly on the subject of the Christian religion, as he has done indeed in other parts of his volumes. We do not intend to retail his impieties, although they are harmless enough, as might be conjectured by the brief account of his *faith*, which we have presented above: but we subjoin the promised extract from the 'Eulogy on *Rousseau*;' and, "except as has been heretofore excepted," we repeat our commendation of this lively *Mélange.*

'Who is that man, born in obscurity, poor, without the means of instruction, abandoned to chance and to himself for the acquisition of any knowlege; wandering in his youth about his native city; begging an asylum in the adjacent district; inconstant in his faith, his taste, and his habits; changing condition, profession, worship, habitation; timid, ignorant of himself and others; beholding his superiors every where; successively filling inferior or abject offices, and filling them without credit; banished, for a long time, to the society of servants; — a man, whose first attempts in every species of employment were so many failures; humiliated by fools, and deceived by friends; directed and governed for nearly forty years nothing now to envy in the Grecian or the Roman *; who knew, by turns, how to touch, soften, or elevate the passions; to call forth tears; to inspire the energy of virtue, and to dissipate our prejudices; who recalled men to the simplicity of nature; who brought mothers back to their duties, and restored liberty and happiness to children; who again endowed the human race with their lost titles to dignity and a noble origin; who, from the bosom of his retirement, armed with his own thunder and lightning, overthrew fanaticism, astonished tyrants, and destroyed despotism; who was persecuted by priests, pursued by authority, envied by rivals, and adored by mankind; —every one of whose works came out with an explosion, and seemed to *escape from a volcano rather than from a printing-press;* who, drying the tears of infancy, and discovering the foundations of the social compact, became at once the benefactor of one-half of the human race, and the deliverer of the other; who effected a revolution in arts, manners, education, policy, and filled the universe with his reputation and his name?—Who is that man?—*Jean Jaques Rousseau.*'

The above compliment about *explosion* is ambiguous. Does the author allude to any *exploded* work of his own, or of *Rousseau?*

Art. XI. *Precis historique,* &c. i. e. An Historical Sketch of the late Events in the Eastern Part of St. Domingo, from the 10th of August 1808, to the Capitulation of the Town of St. Domingo; with Notes historical, political, and statistical, by M. Gilbert Guillermin, Captain of Cavalry, and an Officer on the Staff. 8vo. pp. 494. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s.

An account of the events attendant on the final evacuation of St. Domingo by the French is likely to possess less interest as a narrative, than as a key to the political situation of the colony. At whatever time the course of circumstances may lead to a pacification between France and England, we may rest assured that no pains will be spared by the former to recover the possession of St. Domingo. The long privation of colonial intercourse has doubled the anxiety of the French nation for its re-establishment; and the prospect of acquiring the command of the whole island will stimulate them to seek the attainment of their object by extraordinary exertions. Different in this from the case of Spain, the cordial wishes of the people will go along with the ambition of their ruler; and it will not be a slight consumption either of lives or of treasure, that will suffice to check the prosecution of the enterprize. The book before us, though it by no means offers a clear

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* This is, indeed, the very climax of hyperbole; we might perhaps say, the acmé of absurdity. *Rev.*

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the French marine preventing any decisive interference on the part of the Directory, *Toussaint* was the only *potentate* who was in a condition to occupy the ceded territory. Desirous of covering this, like his other designs, with the semblance of attachment to the mother-country, he obtained from the commissary of the French government, who was resident with him, a formal authority for that purpose, and took possession of the Spanish side of the island in January 1801. *Toussaint*, says Captain GUILLERMIN, had the power of conceiving great ideas, without that facility of expression and habit of analysis which are the results of education and study. His officers and agents of every description were treated as passive instruments, and knew nothing of his plans till the moment of their execution. He was an excellent horseman; and at the age of fifty-five would travel with rapidity from one end of the island to the other. He was very moderate in diet, and limited in his time of sleeping. His look was unpleasant, but dignified; his eye was penetrating; and his memory was remarkably tenacious. These were the favourable points in his character; the other side would exhibit, if we may trust a Frenchman's report, a disgusting accumulation of suspicion, hypocrisy, and cruelty. After he had become, by the retreat of the English from St. Domingo in 1798, the undisputed master of the colony, the Directory, doubtful of his attachment but unable to controul him, adopted the plan of sending out as their representative General *Hédouville*, an officer of ability and of conciliating manners. *Toussaint* saw with disquietude an attempt of which the object was to set bounds to his ambition, particularly as great expectations were entertained from *Hédouville* by the Whites. Unwilling, however, to enter into open contention with the representative of the French government, he confined himself to sowing the seeds of alarm in secret, and managed in such a manner that *Hédouville* deemed it expedient for personal safety to return home. *Toussaint* affected surprize at his departure, and, by a refinement in policy, transferred the delegated powers to *Roum*, the French commissary, whose feeble character gave him no uneasiness. *Hédouville*, however, had contrived, before he departed, to excite a formidable rival to *Toussaint* in the person of *Rigaud*; and a sanguinary war ensued, which ended in favour of *Toussaint*, who still continued the appearance of deference to the mother-country. After having exerted himself to put the cultivation and civil administration of the colony on a settled footing, *Toussaint* directed his forces against the Spanish part of the island, and conducted the invasion in the name of the French government. It was not till the autumn of 1801, that he assumed the title of sove-

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presence would be sufficient to induce the insurgents to lay down their arms, he ventured an attack on them in a favourable position, and was repulsed with great slaughter. The enemy being greatly superior in cavalry, and continuing the pursuit with fatal success, General *Ferrand*, in a transport of rage, put an end to his existence. After this disaster, the French were cooped up in the town of St. Domingo, which the insurgents placed in a state of blockade. Things continued in this condition for many weeks, till the French, pressed for provisions, and aware of the want of discipline among the assailants, succeeded, by some well concerted sorties, in driving the latter from their posts and the neighbourhood of the town: but by this time an English squadron blockaded the port, and prevented the entrance of supplies; the adjoining country, ravaged by the insurgents, afforded very little relief; and the hope of assistance from Europe was at an end. The French troops thus became a prey to the evils of fatigue, want, and disease; a considerable number sank under the pressure: but the survivors continued true to their duty till the beginning of July, (seven months after *Ferrand*'s defeat,) when all chance of relief being at an end, and a body of English troops under General Carmichael having set down before the town, a capitulation was signed, and the garrison were made prisoners of war. Captain GUILLERMIN describes (p. 347.) the very different appearance of the soldiers of the two countries on the evacuation of the place. The French, he says, preserved a military aspect, but seemed pale, stooping, and slow in their march; while the English shewed fresh complexions, elegant uniforms, and shining arms. Their regularity in exercise, and the precision of their general discipline, proved them, adds the author, to be soldiers 'worthy of contending with Frenchmen.' He pays a compliment, also, to the potent efficacy of our Shrapnell shells, which he terms 'a new invention extremely destructive as well by the manner of explosion, as by the great quantity of balls contained in the shells.'

Among the distressing circumstances which have occurred of late years in the West Indies, few are more calculated to excite commiseration than the condition of the French refugees from St. Domingo to Cuba. Their industrious habits made them objects of jealousy to the Spaniards, and they dragged on existence amid frequent alarms: but when the news of the general insurrection in Spain arrived, the national hatred of the colonists burst openly forth against these wanderers, and threatened them with the loss of both property and life. The Governor, anxious to avoid a fatal extremity, issued an order that all foreigners should leave the island within the space a stock of provisions, it gave umbrage to a number of individuals, and created dangerous discontents. — We cannot help being forcibly struck with the patient and persevering resistance of the French; when, in addition to the alarms of disaffection, they were exposed to the horrors of want. Of the misery to which they were subject in that way, we may judge from the exultation manifested on a particular occasion, (p. 232.) on the arrival of a schooner with a supply of flour. 'Conceive,' says M. GUILLERMIN, '4000 persons fed for a month on horses, mules, asses, dogs, cats, old leather, and a few vegetables gathered at the point of the bayonet; and it will readily be believed that we welcomed this supply with enthusiasm.' It is painful to add that the French planters, who were settled in the interior, fell victims to the suspicious and vindictive spirit of their Spanish neighbours.

Of the various quarters in St. Domingo which are intitled to the consideration of the cultivator and the merchant, the peninsula of Samana most strongly attracts M. GUILLERMIN's attention. In that fertile tract, neglected by the Spaniards during three centuries, a few French settlers had begun to make progress in the culture of coffee, so as to flatter themselves with a crop of 6000 cwt. in 1809, had they been allowed to gather it. Ten years of peaceful industry, and of exemption from taxes, would have rendered this district a flourishing spot. It consists partly of fertile levels, and partly of hills covered with majestic forests: but it is still more fortunate in its position relatively to maritime communication. Situated at the east end of St. Domingo, its bay, which is one of the finest in the world, became the proper *rendezvous* for the French ships of war from Europe; and the wind, always favourable towards the rest of the island, will carry a military force to any point on it in the course of three days. M. *Soulastre*, equally impressed with the importance of this road-stead, recommended (M. Rev. Vol. lx. p. 533.) that it should be surveyed by order of the French government, and that a harbour should be constructed on it. It is not easily blockaded by an enemy, on account of the currents, and still more difficult of capture from the nature of the entrance. The river Yuna here falls into the sea; and being navigable for forty miles inland, it might be made the means of transporting to the ship-builder the cedar and the oak which cover its banks. Mines of tin, copper, and iron, also exist in the neighbourhood of this valuable river: but the first step should be the improvement of the climate, by cutting down the forests which intercept the eastern breezes.

minute transactions into his narrative: but our patience yields on being forced to read long letters on trifling details, and, which is worse, on legal argumentation. One of these choice performances consists of twenty-five pages, and is addressed by a clerical gentleman, Dr. *Bernard Correa y Cidron*, to the insurgent chief, for the purpose of persuading him to return to his allegiance. The Doctor declares that three hours are enough for answering this voluminous production: but, in the extent of his charity, he allows his adversary twenty-four hours. No answer being returned, M. Guillermin boldly pronounces that the silence of the rebel commander must proceed from his being overcome (*écrasé*) by the irresistible arguments of the enlightened Doctor.

The Captain is scarcely less diffuse than his clerical friend, in the exposition of his views on the political state of St. Domingo. He will not admit the possibility of cultivating the colony by free negroes, with whatever precautions. 'Liberty under the tropics,' he says, 'is a chimera. If the blacks be not slaves to the whites, they will be slaves to a tyrant out of their own number,—the most dreadful slavery of any.' The present race of blacks having been familiarized to the use of arms, and lost to habits of industry, must, he says, be removed from the island to some distant settlement, and their place be supplied by new importations from Africa.

Of the practicability of wresting the island from the hands of the negroes, after France shall be at peace with England, the author entertains no doubt. The negroes, he asserts, are ill fitted to sustain a protracted warfare, and know nothing of liberty farther than that it enables them to live in a state of idleness. Long indulgence has diminished their power of standing fatigue; and the number of their military is not supposed to exceed fifteen thousand. The most dangerous enemy to the French troops would be the climate; and the only means of softening its fatal effects are to chuse the healthy seasons of the year, to prevent the soldiers from using spirits, and to keep as much as possible out of towns. With these precautions, and a force of twenty-five thousand men, Captain Guillermin thinks that the re-conquest of St. Domingo might be accomplished in four months; — a calculation in which, we apprehend, he is far too sanguine. The population of the free negroes, in our opinion, greatly exceeds his estimate: (p. 402.) but, whatever be their numbers, he repeats his conviction that no plan will succeed in St. Domingo except the re-establishment of slavery on the old footing, modified by the regulations of a *code noir*.

lished form only a part of the intended work, the remainder being postponed for the present, until the author may have had an opportunity of completing it more to his satisfaction than he now can. We are also informed that the chief portion of his time is occupied with a great undertaking, which is now nearly concluded, viz. 'A complete Treatise of Surgery, Therapeutics, and Surgical Operations.' The first part of this 'immense work' is mentioned as being ready for publication a year ago, but we have not heard that it has yet arrived in this country.

Osteology is here, as usual, divided into the description of the bones in the dry and in the recent state. Two objects may be stated as especially requiring the attention of the writer in such accounts; he should endeavour to give a correct idea of the shape and properties of the bone itself, and afterward of its relative position in the skeleton and of its connection with the neighbouring parts. It is not, perhaps, to be expected that much improvement should be made in the existing descriptions of the individual bones: but we have always thought that the details of their situation are not so perfect as they might be made. This deficiency cannot arise from any ignorance on the part of the anatomist, but from the imperfection of the language which is generally adopted. On this point, the manner of the present author seems to possess considerable merit; not so much by furnishing any thing that is absolutely new, as by putting his ideas into a perspicuous form. He supposes the body to be bounded or divided by seven planes; one above the head, another below the feet, one extended at the front, another at the back, one on each side, and the last parallel to the lateral planes, and passing longitudinally through the centre. These planes obviously afford fixed and permanent points, to which every part of the skeleton may be referred.

In describing the regions of the bones, as M. Léveillé calls them, we think that he is intitled to the merit of clearness and brevity; and, on the whole, we feel disposed to admit the propriety of the nomenclature which he adopts in his description of them. His general principle is to name them, not from their position in the body, but from the parts which are contiguous to them. To employ his own illustration, he describes the parietal bones as having, not an inner and an outer, but a cerebral and a cutaneous surface. He speaks of the spheroid as having a cerebral and a temporo-guttural surface, and of the sternum as having a cutaneous and a thoracic surface. He justly observes that the terms which he employs present a distinct conception to the mind, and give a specific idea of the thing by M. Léveillé are *acromio-huméral*, *sus-acromio-huméral*, *sous-acromio-huméral*, *scapulo-huméral*, *sous-scapulo-huméral*, *scapulo-bicipital*, and *coraco-huméral*. Here we should feel no hesitation in asserting that the old names, in consequence of their differing more among themselves, and possessing, as it were, a kind of irregularity, would be better remembered than the new: but we regard the mere question of memory as of comparatively little importance, because, if the thing be intrinsically good, the student ought to learn it. Our objection against all these fresh systems of names, unless when new names are rendered necessary by new discoveries, is that the student must either learn two sets of names, and be equally familiar with them both, or he must renounce all the advantage which he might otherwise derive from the publications of all preceding and contemporary writers. The anatomical language of M. Léveillé (and we may extend the remark to our countryman Dr. Barclay) is unintelligible to all but their respective pupils; and however excellent it may be in itself, the adoption of it in any work would be an injury to the progress of knowlege. Any advantage which might be gained by the appearance of scientific arrangement, or methodical classification, would be dearly purchased by the sacrifice.

After the description of the muscles, we proceed to consider their properties; and first their vital powers, or those which distinguish them from dead matter. The first of these powers, that which may be regarded as the specific property of the muscular fibre, is what the author calls its *contractility*, — the *irritability* of *Haller*, — a property which the muscle possesses for some time after its separation from the body; and which, therefore, according to the language of the French school, is dependent on its organic life. Besides their contractility, M. Léveillé supposes that muscles possess an organic sensibility, that is, a sensibility residing in each particular part or fibre, unconnected with the nervous system. He does not, indeed, express himself on this subject with so much clearness as we might wish: but it appears to us that he employs the term *sensibility* in two different senses, the one to signify the effect produced on the sensorium, through the intervention of the nervous system; the other, to denote the effect produced on the muscular fibre previously to its contraction; and this last is the *organic sensibility*. It is said not to be a property peculiar to muscles, but to be more active in the muscles than in other parts of the body. Both these properties, the contractility and the sensibility, exist for a certain length of time after a muscle is separated from the body, and in this case they are styled *organic*: but where the muscular powers exist as forming a part of at some length into an examination of another and an original publication of this ingenious Lady, intitled, *The History of Elizabeth, Queen of England*; in the commencement of which article we hazarded a prediction of the approaching convulsions in France, that was but too speedily verified. During the early years of the Revolution, Mad. K. R. instituted a Literary Journal, which we believe did not long succeed; and now she appears before us in the humbler office of a Novel-writer, having composed a romance of the 16th century; in which she brings us back to those times with considerable adroitness. Her style is unaffected; and, although some of the explanations are too prolix, the story is pleasing, and its morality is unexceptionable.

Art. 14. *Les Voyages de Kang-Hi*, &c. i. e. The Travels of Kang-Hi, or new Chinese Letters. By M. DE LEVIS. 12mo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1810. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s.

An amusing satire on the manners of the French nation is couched under this title, and is not only written with pleasantry and acuteness, but contains some very ingenious disquisitions. Among these we find a letter on the literary abilities of the fair sex; in which we confess that the author loses sight of his national gallantry, though our politeness will not always enable us to refute his observations. He imitates *Mercier* by anticipating the period of which he treats, and his letters are dated in the year 1900: by which contrivance he introduces a description of many improvements in arts and sciences that at present appear chimerical. The difference of character between the French and the Chinese also occasions some humorous incidents; and the Parisian belles are represented as being so struck with the attire of a Chinese lady, and so desirous of imitating it, that they persuade her to lie in bed while they carry all her gowns as models to their mantua-makers. Kang-Hi also gives his friend an excellent specimen of a modern conversation, in which every one tries to communicate information respecting China, instead of accepting it from him; and all seem to talk for the sole purpose of confirming themselves in their own opinions.

We trust that the mock memoir on the independence of India, which concludes this work, will not prove prophetic; since M. DE LEVIS suggests some of the measures that are likely to prevent such a catastrophe, while detailing those by which he supposes it to be accelerated.

On the whole, we consider the letters of Kang-Hi as the *jeu d'esprit* of a man of talents, and we think that they will afford entertainment to their readers.

Art. 15. *Aline de Reisentein*, &c. i.e. Aline de Reisentein, or a Picture of Life. By AUGUSTUS LA FONTAINE. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1810. Imported by Dulau. Price 1l.

While we are pleased in this novel with the blunt and generous Magnus de Reisenstein, we are disgusted by the most prominent character, Henry Thorberg, a villain whose atrocities are not sufficiently punished, and whose victims are too sparingly rewarded. Solen's tale is interesting: but the story is not sufficiently attractive

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ciated, with his body bent, his eyes sunken, and his brow wrinkled,' to claim his mistress at the end of such a period. The death of Saldorf is believed too readily by his friends, while the reader is not deceived for a moment by the reports which they so implicitly credit. We suspect, however, that this work has received some injury in the translation; and that the character of *Frazer* has been made inconsistent and unintelligible by an imperfect acquaintance with the language of the original.

Art. 19. *Henri*, &c.; i. e. Henry, or Friendship; translated from the German of AUGUSTUS LA FONTAINE, by Madame ——, Author of *A Winter in London*. 12mo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1811. Imported by Dulau. Price 10s.

Although we blame the sudden attachments and instantaneous intimacies which M. LA FONTAINE's personages are liable to contract, yet the effects of an affectionate and confiding friendship are here painted in a touching and able manner; and we can recommend this little work as possessing much interest, and inculcating generous though perhaps *romantic* sentiments.

Art. 20. *Charles de Montfort*, &c. By Madame De * * *. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1811. Imported by Dulau. Price 10s.

This novel is presented to the public as a first attempt, and it is one of the most pleasing and promising which we have lately seen. The noble character of Charles de Montfort is well contrasted with that of the tender but unstable Edward; and, throughout the work, much feeling and an accurate knowlege of human nature are displayed. The history of Madame de St. Geran is, however, irrelevant to the principal story; and the conclusion, though simple and affecting, is disfigured by a trait of childish superstition.

Art. 21. *Stanislas Zamoski*, &c.; i. e. Stanislas Zamoski, or the illustrious Poles. By Madame BARTHÉLEMY-HADOT, Author of *Clotilde de Hapsburg*, &c. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l.

In the beginning of this work, we find a fulsome eulogium on *Bonaparte*, to whom the author pretends that posterity will erect altars. The incense of Madame BARTHÉLEMY-HADOT cannot, however, survive to blaze on them, since her romance is so devoid of interest and of merit that throughout the perusal of it we pitied ourselves more than the distressed |Stanislas, and felt no other anxiety than to arrive at the conclusion.

Art. 22. *La Prise de Jericho*, &c.; i. e. The Capture of Jericho, or the Sinner converted. By Madame COTTIN, Author of *Claire d'Albe*, &c. 12mo. Paris.—London, Colburn. Price 2s. 6d. 1811.

Here is a new edition of a performance which we have been concerned to see bound together with some copies of "Elizabeth, or the Exiles in Siberia," since no two productions of the same pen were ever more dissimilar; and '*La Prise de Jericho*' contains enough poison to counteract all the good that might have been gathered from the moral and beautiful tale which was made its quondam

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